

JOURNAL
OF
THE NATIONAL
INDIAN ASSOCIATION

IN AID OF
SOCIAL PROGRESS AND FEMALE EDUCATION
IN INDIA.

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NATIONAL INDIAN ASSOCIATION.

OBJECTS OF THE ASSOCIATION.

To extend a knowledge of India in England, and an interest in the people of that country.

To co-operate with all efforts made for advancing education and social reform in India.

To promote friendly intercourse between English people and the people of India.

THE ASSOCIATION CARRIES OUT THESE OBJECTS BY THE FOLLOWING
AND OTHER METHODS :—

1. The publication of a monthly Journal recording educational work and social progress in India, and diffusing information and opinions on Indian subjects.

2. Lectures in connection with the Objects above stated.

3. Grants in encouragement of female education, grants to educational and philanthropic institutions in India, gifts of books to libraries, prizes for schools, &c.

4. Extending the employment of Medical Women in India.

5. Selecting English teachers for families and schools.

6. Help and friendly offices to Indian teachers visiting England for purposes connected with their profession.

7. Affording needful information to Indians in England, supplying them with introductions, &c.

8. Soirées and occasional Excursions to places of interest.

In India there are Branch Associations at Calcutta, Bombay and Madras, which undertake educational work and promote social intercourse between English and Indians.

This Association, which was established by Miss Carpenter, has now existed fourteen years. The Committee desire to promote, by the various practical methods indicated above, increased sympathy and union between English people and the people of India. They therefore request co-operation from all who are interested in India's moral and intellectual progress.

In all the proceedings of this Association the principle of non-interference in religion is strictly maintained.

MEMBERSHIP, ETC.

Subscriptions and donations to the Association to be paid to the London and Westminster Bank, 1 St. James' Square, S.W. ; to FRANCIS WYLLIE, Esq., Treasurer, East India United Service Club, S.W. ; to ALAN GREENWELL, Esq. (Bristol), Treasurer, 8 Alma Road, Clifton ; or to Miss E. A. MANNING, Hon. Sec. Subscriptions are due January 1st of the current year.

A payment of ten guineas or of Rs. 100 constitutes the donor a Life Member ; an annual subscription of 10/- and upwards constitutes Membership. Members are entitled to receive invitations to the Soirées and Meetings of the Association, and the monthly Journal.

The Journal may be subscribed for separately, 5/- per annum, in advance, post free, by notice to the Publishers (London, KEGAN PAUL & Co. ; Bristol, J. W. ARROWSMITH) ; and it can be procured through Booksellers.

In India the Journal may be obtained from the Secretaries of the Branches.



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MEDICAL WOMEN FOR INDIA.

WE are glad to be able to report another generous offer lately made at Bombay in furtherance of the scheme initiated by Mr. Kittredge and Mr. Sorabjee Shapoorjee Bengallee, already so munificently responded to, for establishing two qualified medical women in practice in that city. A Mahomedan gentleman, Mr. Hajee Curreem Mahomed Sulliman, having been informed that it would be very desirable that there should be a Dispensary separate from the P.H. Cama Hospital, proposed to build one at the cost of Rs. 20,000. This offer is the more valuable on account of the time that must elapse before the Hospital can be completed. The Committee will now be able to make arrangements without delay for securing for the women of the poorer classes the benefit of medical attendance from Miss Pechey.

The following letter announced the liberal proposal:—

Messrs. G. A. Kittredge and Sorabjee Shapoorjee
Bengallee, C.I.E.

Dear Sirs,—I am informed that it is at least questionable whether, in the interests of the patients of a hospital, a dis-

dispensary should be attached to it; furthermore, I am anxious that the lady doctors now on their way to Bombay should have earlier means of working among the poor than the new hospital can afford, owing to the time required for the construction of so large a building. I beg therefore to offer to put up at once a building, to cost about Rs. 20,000, to be used permanently as a dispensary for women and children under the charge of lady doctors. The conditions I propose are the following:—1st. That Government give a plot of ground for the purpose in the vicinity of the market. 2nd. That the dispensary be called after me. 3rd. The property to be made over to the Municipality or to trustees for the purpose above mentioned. I am, &c.,

Bombay, Dec. 4th.

JAFFER SULLIMAN.

A Resolution was passed by the Committee thanking Mr. Hajee Curreem Mahomed Sulliman for the letter written by him in the name of Jaffer Sulliman, and accepting his offer conditionally on the agreement of the Municipal Corporation to contribute Rs. 6,000 per annum towards the current expenses of the Dispensary, and also on the granting of a site by Government. The Committee bind themselves to maintain the Dispensary for three years, and to call it the Jaffer Sulliman Dispensary for Women and Children. It is expected that there will be no difficulty in regard to the aid desired from the Government and the Municipality, and that the proposed Dispensary, in a central locality, will therefore shortly be available for use.

It is satisfactory to find also that the Medical Women movement is making progress in Madras, where it has been proposed by Surgeon-General W. R. Cornish, F.R.C.S., C.I.E., that a Hospital for Women should be established by leading native gentlemen with the assistance of Government, in which Mrs. Scharlieb's skill and experience might be employed for the poorer classes. Surgeon-General Cornish addressed, on Sept. 24th, the following letter on this subject to the Acting Chief Secretary of the Madras Government, and he received a favourable reply.

I have the honour to forward, for the consideration of Government, a printed copy of testimonials obtained by Mrs. Mary Scharlieb, M.B. and B.S. of the London University. This lady, as Government are aware, was the pioneer of female students in the Madras Medical College,* where she earned the esteem and approval of the various professors, and after completing the course of study designed for women students, proceeded to Europe for further study, and very highly distinguished herself in the Honour examinations of the London University. Very few graduates of the London University have obtained such honourable distinction as Mrs. Scharlieb. Mrs. Scharlieb intends practising her profession in Madras, and it has seemed to me that her great talents and abilities might be turned to good account if a hospital for the reception of in and out door patients of the poorer classes of those sections of native society which, by custom and habit, do not appear in public, were established under her supervision and control. To meet the objections and prejudices of the classes referred to, I am of opinion that to ensure success it would be necessary that the hospital should be officered and administered entirely by female agency. From estimates I have made I believe that such an institution might be started and supported at a cost of from Rs. 10,000 to Rs. 12,000 per annum, including the salary of lady physician, apothecary, rent of building, maintenance of from twenty to thirty in-patients, and all contingent expenses. It has often been alleged that the better classes of this community would be only too thankful to have qualified female medical attendants within their reach, and I have no doubt that in course of time Mrs. Scharlieb will find her professional services in demand amongst those who can afford to employ a medical attendant. But from what we know of native society there are probably vast numbers of females of respectable family or caste who, while too poor to pay fees, are guided by custom and habit, and cannot, or will not, avail themselves of the advantages of the ordinary Government hospitals and dispensaries. It is in regard to this class of the population that it seems to me something might be done to utilise Mrs. Scharlieb's professional labour. I have been and am still in communication with some leading members of native society on the subject of establishing such a hospital. In a matter of this kind I feel that those who are mainly interested in the establishment of female medical practitioners should take the initiative, and I have reason to hope that some definite proposals may shortly be

* Mrs. Scharlieb was one of the four students who joined the Madras Medical College after it had been opened to women in 1875, through the exertions of Surgeon-General Balfour.

Her Majesty the Queen, expects to have completed her medical course in a few months, and that she will then be desirous of engaging in practice in India. She would like to have an appointment in some large town or in a Native State, where there would be also opportunities of private practice. We have Miss Beilby's authority for stating that she intends in future to confine herself strictly to medical work, without any interference with the religion of her patients. The Committee of the National Indian Association will be glad to receive communications from India in regard to any opening for a medical woman (with a guaranteed salary) in which Miss Beilby's knowledge of native life and habits, acquired during several years' experience in the management of Dispensaries in India, and her acquaintance with Hindustani, would make her medical qualifications of special use among native ladies.

FAREWELL TO MRS. CARMICHAEL BY THE NATIVE LADIES OF MADRAS.

The departure from Madras of Mr. and Mrs. Carmichael is deeply regretted by the friends of education in that Presidency. It will be difficult to supply the blank thus caused in respect to the many institutions which Mrs. Carmichael's unwearied efforts promoted in aid of female education and of cordial relations between English and native society. Our readers will be interested to learn that the native ladies of Madras have very emphatically expressed their sense of her friendliness, and their sorrow at her leaving Madras.

At a meeting held some weeks ago, under the presidency of H.H. the Maharaja of Vizianagram, it was resolved that an entertainment should be given to the Hon. D. F. Carmichael, and that arrangements should be made for his portrait to be painted life size, and for founding some other suitable memorial. Among the speakers at the meeting

were the Raja of Pittapur, Raja the Hon. G. N. Gajapathy Row, Bishop Colgan, Raja Sir T. Madava Row, Hon. Mr. Justice Muthusawmy Iyer, Mr. D. S. White, Mr. Scharlieb, the Hon. T. Rama Row, Surgeon-Major Keess, Mr. Streenivasa Row, Dr. Mohidin Sheriff Khan Bahadur, Mr. Hammell, Hon. Mir Humayoon Jah Bahadur, and Mr. P. S. Ramasawmy Moodeliar. A Committee was formed, and a subscription list was opened to carry out the wishes of the meeting.

At the meeting the following testimony was borne by the Maharaja to Mrs. Carmichael's well-known exertions in regard to female education at Madras:—

By Mrs. Carmichael's unceasing efforts to bring native ladies out of the prison of the purdah system and to remove the gloom of ignorance that envelopes their intellect, she has rendered a signal service to the cause of female education in India. Accordingly she is loved by all, from the Maharanees down to the poorest of the Hindu ladies. The Madras Branch of the National Indian Association, the Hobart Girls' School, and other institutions of that nature in the Presidency have thriven and prospered greatly through her able and generous co-operation. Nothing could illustrate the success of these institutions better than the fact of their being able to send specimens of their work to the ensuing International Exhibition, which, I think, is the first instance of industrial work by Indian women being ever exhibited by way of competition with the work of European nations. During the late famine her sympathy and generous disposition actuated her to take vigorous steps for the relief of the poor with a success, which is a conspicuous example for the wealthy ladies of our country. In that critical time, when the measures adopted even by Government seemed hardly able to cope with the magnitude of the famine, the measures she inaugurated saved the lives of some five thousand children, as the records of the famine will show, and as is recorded also in the book of heaven. For such sterling deeds, a mere public recapitulation is but a poor return. But as a proof of their gratitude the Hindu ladies of this city, I am glad to hear, are determined to do her the unprecedented honour of inviting her to meet them together at a special reception to bid her farewell.

The entertainment by native ladies to Mrs. Carmichael, referred to in the above remarks, took place on December 17. The following interesting account of the party has been sent to us, and we have much pleasure in reprinting the address and Mrs. Carmichael's reply:—

Her Highness the Maharani of Vizianagram and the Rani Gajapathi Rao were the foremost in this entertainment, which took place on Monday last, the 17th December, 1883, at "The Mansion," the residence of the Honourable G. N. Gajapathi Rao. The Mount Road from Dent's Garden Hotel up to the entrance to "The Mansion" was illumined with kerosine lamps on posts ten feet apart, while triumphal arches of various shapes, sizes and designs decorated the pathway at intervals. Arches were erected at the commencement and finish of the procession, and at Waller's stables, the Branch Elphinstone Hotel, and General Neill's statue. Flags were put up on the route, and evergreens added to the gaiety of the scene. Festoons of leaves and flowers were also hung across the road. The guests began to arrive at about a quarter to nine, and were received by the Rani Gajapathi Rao, Begum Humayun Jah, Mrs. Muthusawmi Iyer and Mrs. Rama Row. There were in all about a hundred Hindu, and as many Mahomedan ladies present. The number of European ladies was also large. The following address to Mrs. Carmichael was read by the Rani Gajapathi Rao:—

"Madam,—As in a very short time you are to leave Madras, permit us, on behalf of the women of this Presidency, to approach you with this address, and to show the lively sense we entertain of your good work amongst us in past years. The society of the Presidency necessarily had many claims on you; and while we have heard in our own homes how much your society owes to you, we cannot help expressing our admiration that you should still have found time, not only for doing innumerable benevolent acts, but for striving to improve the condition of the women of India. The good work you have done will live for ever in this Presidency, and you have ever been the well-wisher and kind friend of all around you. The schools will miss you, those more particularly for the education of Hindu and Muhammadan girls, such as the Hobart Muhammadan Girls' School and His Highness the Maharajah of Vizianagram's Girls' Schools. The Orphan Asylums of Madras will miss you, for you have ever taken a warm interest in the unfortunate children who fill them. Above all, the orphans left by that fearful calamity—the famine, will miss you; for you have untiringly laboured, not only to save their lives, but also to train them up to be useful members of society. There will be real grief among those who were the recipients of your private charity, and on the part of those who need help to make their way in the world. We, however, are under special

obligations to you. We shall never forget your work in connection with the National Indian Association: how through your receptions, which it has been a real pleasure to us to attend, you encourage us to recognise the obligations that society has on us. Nor can we forget your kindness and the trouble to which you must have been put, in personally appearing at public places with native ladies, doing your utmost to enable them to overcome their shyness. More we shall not say lest we weary you. We may, however, assure you that your name has become a household word amongst us, and in teaching it to our children we encourage the hope that they will remember it as the name of a beneficent English lady, and that they will strive to imitate you, in however humble a way. Thus your life amongst us may form an epoch in the history of the women of this Presidency, and we earnestly trust that the good work you have begun will be continued and bear rich fruit in the future. In saying farewell we wish you a pleasant voyage, and pray that the Author of all good may prolong your life and that of your good husband, and that the choicest blessings of Heaven may attend you both."

A Tamil address was also read by Miss Mutusawmi Iyer, and a Telugu address by the Begum Humayun Jah. The English address was excellently engrossed on vellum by Mr. R. Baldrey, and a model of a casket, in course of preparation, was exhibited. On the address Mrs. Carmichael is represented as standing in the midst of a famine camp, consisting of destitute orphans, and distributing rice to them.

Mrs. Carmichael replied as follows:—

"Ladies,—The address, which you have just read to me, has filled me with gratitude. I do not indeed deserve the praises you have so kindly lavished on me.

"It is but little I have done; but let me assure you that to have become your friend, and to have rendered some small assistance to my sisters in the East, has been a great happiness to me. The presence, this evening, of so many Indian ladies, of different castes and creeds, assembled to bid an affectionate farewell to an English sister, is, I believe, an unprecedented event; one, which our Gracious Queen, the Empress of India, herself—whose heart beats so warmly for the women of India—will hear of with deep interest and satisfaction.

"There would have been no advance, dear friends, in the work I have endeavoured to effect without your confidence. The English woman must hold out her hand and gently lead her Indian sister forward, step by step—Indian ladies must feel that

they are appreciated and loved for themselves; that their Oriental feelings and prejudices will be tenderly considered and respected, though the path taken is a new one; nor does your English sister forget that she may often imitate with advantage your 'gracious household ways' and constant devotion to home duties.

"Once confidence is established in your heart all reserve is at an end, and then the English woman can be of much help and comfort to you. She will be heard when she tells you that education is necessary to make you useful and pleasant companions in your homes. Your daughters at least will be educated, and a fresh brightness will creep into their faces, for all children love to learn, and always appreciate the trouble that is taken with them.

"It is therefore a source of immense satisfaction to me to find that education has made considerable progress among my Eastern sisters during the past ten years all over the Madras Presidency. In 1873 and 1874 there were 238 schools for girls, and 17,113 girls were reading in the schools connected with the Educational Department. On the 31st of March last the number of similar schools for girls was 760, and the number of girls under instruction 43,671—showing an increase of more than 150 per cent. in the ten years. According to the Madras Census Returns for 1871 there were 25,039 girls who were able to read and write or under instruction, out of a population of more than fifteen millions of women. Our Census of 1881 reveals an extraordinary improvement in this respect; while the population has but slightly increased, the number of girls under instruction is 133,675—an increase of more than 400 per cent. I have no doubt that the improvement I have alluded to, holds good not only in respect of the number of girls instructed, but also in respect of the results of such instruction and the extent to which female education is appreciated by all castes and creeds of the native population.

"By way of illustration I may cite the last report just received from the Inspectress in regard to the working of the Hobart School for Muhammadan girls during the year 1882-83; it is most gratifying. The attendance has improved; the Preparatory class has doubled; while nearly all the classes are larger than they were the year before. The increase of the strength of the first and second classes is particularly encouraging. The needlework, the Inspectress of schools says, deserves special praise,—all this shows what clever bright children we have amongst us, if the advantages of education are only allowed to them. I may mention, in connection with this school, that His Highness the Prince of Arcot has promised

to found a scholarship there tenable for five years and to award a medal annually during the same period, after which it is his intention to establish a similar school at Triplicane. Several girls of this school, established by Lady Hobart, in April, 1875, can now earn a small livelihood by their needlework. In time I hope this school will send out Hindustani teachers for establishing other schools of the same kind. Lady Hobart endowed this school, hoping that it might be a blessing to the children of the Muhammadan community. She feels it has realised her expectations, and is most gratified at the progress made in these short eight years. We must all thank Mrs. Firth and the ladies of the Committee of the Hobart School for their kind assistance.

"I have given these details solely for the benefit of my Indian lady friends, knowing that your address and my reply are to be printed in several languages.

"Lastly, we must all feel most thankful to the founders of the National Indian Association for the social gatherings which we have so often enjoyed.

"When in England, I shall often see Lady Napier and Ettrick and Mary, Lady Hobart, household names with you all. It will be a source of pleasure to us to speak of our many lady friends in this Presidency.

"I shall soon be separated, by sea and land, from my Indian sisters, 'but distance makes the heart grow fonder;' and I shall always love to hear of, and from you, whenever you feel inclined to write to one, who will always gratefully recall the many years, full of interest and happiness, she has spent among you, saddened only by the two years of a famine and suffering, which—God grant—may never again visit this Presidency."

The following was the programme on the occasion :—

1. Native Band, played with English instruments, by Rangaswamy and Co., of Tanjore.
2. Kolatam Dance.
3. Presentation of the Address.
4. Sanskrit and Carnatic Music, by Songstresses P. Rangasany, of the Ceded Districts.
5. Vina, to be played by Songstress Dhanam, of Madras.
6. Mysore Music, by a couple of Songstresses, Venkatalaxmy and Nagaratnam, of Mysore.
7. Bombay Music, by Songstress Rangaboy, of Bombay.
8. Hindustani Music, by Mussulman Songstresses Babu and another.
9. Refreshments.
10. Fireworks.
11. Distribution of Flowers and Pan.
12. "Mangalam" Song, by the above mentioned P. Rangasany, being a song of praise to the Author of all Happiness.

The Volunteer Band was in attendance during the evening, besides native musicians from Tanjore. The "Mansion"

was illuminated with the electric light, and the grounds presented a most brilliant and cheerful appearance. Refreshments were provided for the European guests by Monsieur D'Angelis, and separate refreshments for the native ladies. A very successful pyrotechnic display brought the entertainment to a close. Among those present were the Princess of Arcot, Lady Turner, Mrs. H. E. Sullivan, Mrs. Kindersley, Miss Kernan, Miss Gell, Mrs. Hutchins, Mrs. Cornish, Mrs. Ramiengar, Miss Chentsal Row, Miss Master, Mrs. Grigg, Mrs. Keess, Mrs. Brander, Mrs. Bashyam Iyengar, Mrs. Ragoonatha Rao, Mrs. Ramasawmy Chetty, Mrs. Subbramanier, Miss Mir Ansuradin Sahib and others.

The brilliant and cordial reception in honour of Mr. and Mrs. Carmichael, on 18th Dec., at the Banqueting Hall, will long be remembered, and it was another proof of the esteem in which they were held.

IMPRESSIONS OF BURMAH AND THE BURMESE.

The visitor to Burmah who has formed any idea of the country and people from the geography books of a few years ago will find the reality very different from his preconceived notions. The writers of these books usually spoke of Burmah as "Further India"; and having given a name to the country seemed only anxious to justify it in their descriptions! for on no other ground can one understand the persistent classification of Burmah with India.

As a matter of fact the two countries and their peoples are strikingly dissimilar—the former as much in climate, scenery and architecture, both ecclesiastic and lay, as the latter in appearance, habits and character. And I believe, judging from my own experience, I shall best give a correct general idea of the country and people by saying how it is *not* like India.

First, then, to mention an essential difference in the climates. The rainy season in Burmah, lasting so much longer than in India, prevents the country ever getting so parched and dry as India becomes in the dry season. But to see this sunny fertile land in its most becoming garb one should visit it towards the close of the rainy season, which lasts from April to October; then it wears its most

luxuriant emerald dress, ornamented with the brilliant blossoms of the numerous flowering trees which are then in bloom; and one may view the beauties of the country under clear skies (almost an impossibility during the earlier part of the rainy season, owing to the frequent heavy rain, fogs and mists) by the light of a glorious sunrise or sunset—both of which are most gorgeous at this season.

Then in the place of the white stone houses of India we find mahogany-like structures, *i.e.*, bungalows built of the dark teak wood of the country. One's first idea, that such dark looking houses must be gloomy and depressing, soon gives way to the conviction that they are in style and material just suited to the country—the dark teak wood neutralizing the glare of the sun, which, owing to the clearness of the atmosphere, is intense, and most readily losing the heat absorbed during the day; so that the inmates generally enjoy a cool night without the aid of punkahs when the evening breeze, which we are always sure of in Burmah, sets in. Then the pagodas, which take the place of the temples of India, give out the sweet music of their numerous bells, tinkling in the breeze.

The Burmese have been called the "Irish of the East," and that the comparison is in general points a good one must strike all who have the opportunity to observe these light-hearted, high-spirited, proud, reckless, yet dreamy, beauty-loving and work-hating people!

From this description all who know India and the Hindoos will at once see how essentially the Burman differs from the earnest, thoughtful, industrious native of India. But though the Burmese lack the perseverance and the power of earnest concentration which make the work of education in India so encouraging, they are by no means wanting in intellectual capacity; and when they choose, for a special object, they will devote themselves with unwearying application to study.

This is particularly observable in the women, who are undoubtedly the more energetic and enterprising (to say the least) of the sexes in Burmah.

One of the first things which strikes the visitor who comes to Burmah from India is the liberty enjoyed by Burmese women, who, of all ranks, walk in the streets unveiled; they are generally most gaily clad and have their hair tastefully decorated with natural flowers.

Amongst the lower classes the woman does most of the outdoor work, the men frequently staying at home and performing the domestic duties which in most lands are left to the women; while in the higher classes she is ever the honoured adviser and coadjutor of the male heads of the family—the merchant and the mengyee, invariably taking his wife into council concerning all important transactions. In short, women in Burmah have immense power and influence in all circles. And I am convinced that the improvement of the national character must come largely through them if at all.

Feeling this so strongly, I have often regretted that so little was being done for female education in Burmah. While there are now several really good schools or colleges—Government, S.P.G., Roman Catholic and Baptist—for boys and men, little or nothing has been done for advanced female education. There are some excellent elementary and industrial schools belonging to the Ladies' Association of the S.P.G., to the Baptist and Roman Catholic Missions, which are doing a great work in their way; but there is much need of schools for the higher education of the women. These schools should have scholarships attached to them, and they should supply a liberal, elevating and refining education—in which some of the accomplishments of Western ladies, such as music, drawing and fancy work should have a prominent place. So that the women of Burmah, retaining (as they certainly will) their personal influence with their countrymen, may still be helps for them, having sympathy with the higher tastes and aspirations which they form. Indeed I have no hesitation in saying that I believe until such advantages of higher culture are accorded to the ladies of Burmah the education of the other sex will be barren of any really thorough or lasting good to the country, remaining merely, as it is now, appreciated as the means by which a boy may get a genteel post and "good pay."

That my estimate of women's influence in Burmah, and of its recognition, though with good-naturedly satirical allowance it may be, is not a false or exaggerated one, all who know the country, its people and literature will allow. The sojourner amongst the people sees practical proofs, often of a very amusing nature, of the fact in all grades of society—in the Palace, whence every edict that goes forth is (rightly or

wrongly I do not presume to say, and the justice or injustice of the charge does not materially affect the argument) popularly attributed to the Queen's influence; in official and mercantile circles, where the people exhibit a constant anxiety to propitiate by gifts and polite attentions the favor and good offices of the governor's wife, merchant's wife, &c.; and so downwards wherever advantage may be hoped for or injury feared. Many proofs of the popular recognition of this feminine influence as a matter of course and of its systematic and general utilization by the people have come under my notice. One such circumstance, interesting in its simplicity, and which illustrates not only this point but also Burmese female character itself, I will here record:—A young man who had completed his school course with great credit and won golden opinions from his superiors for his high moral character as well as for his mental powers, had a good post as assistant to a Deputy-Commissioner, involving charge of a distant sub-district, offered to him. To the surprise of all he, after time asked for consideration, respectfully declined the appointment, begging instead for a (less responsible and much inferior) post where he would be under the immediate notice of a well known and respected officer. When pressed to give his reasons for such an unlooked-for decision, he said he acted under the advice of his mother and mother-in-law, who considered that the post would be one of too great peril for him. For they said: if *he and his wife* (the young couple were aged respectively 21 and 23—the wife, as often in Burmese marriages, being the elder of the two) did withstand the bribery to which they would inevitably be exposed and firmly and indifferently administer justice, no one would believe they had done so! And he therefore, by the advice of these good ladies, begged that he might be placed where he could gain experience and establish a name under an older man of known integrity.

That the ladies are by no means unconscious of or slow to use their influence I need not say. That their power is always exercised for good and on the side of right and justice I grieve to say I cannot assert, nor can such unimpeachable conduct be expected until they are taught higher and nobler motives of action than they at present know. But I have often been struck to observe the ready, clear and correct judgment which a Burmese lady would bring to any matter

of business or point of dispute; and I have generally with pleasure observed a real desire, both instinctive and conscientious, in such cases to do "the right thing." Alas! that I must also say I have, too, seen these right intentions overcome by very selfish considerations. Such considerations however are oftener family than personal. For the Burmese woman has very strong affections, especially for her children, for whose sake she will risk everything. I have known cases of most unselfish devotion to family interests: where a young wife has worked cheerfully for years, selling in bazaar, and unaided performing all the laborious work it entailed, in order to support her family, including old parents as well as her children, and keep her husband at school and college, where he might fit himself to take a post in which he would condescend to work for his family; or, as they would think, might do so without loss of prestige! For the Burman has not been educated to see the dignity of all honest labour. He would much rather hold a clerkship with small salary—so he kept his hands soft and could wear his silken dress, than manfully exert himself to win the competence he might command by using the physical strength with which nature has gifted him. But I believe that this false pride and puerile vanity will in time wear out before sounder and nobler Western modes of thought and grounds of action.

The Burman is proud and sensitive; he piques himself on his courtesy and polish and general correctness. He has a high opinion of the Englishman, and has adopted many of his habits and customs—not all with advantage perhaps. But one of the best effects of his admiration and imitation is seen in the greater respect and consideration with which the Burman has learnt to treat his countrywomen. They now receive, outwardly at least, some marks of courtesy and kindly attention, as of the stronger to the weaker; attentions which the British gentleman (always chivalrous in the best sense of the word in his treatment of women, I must maintain, in spite of the charge of lack of general courtesy so often brought against him by his Continental neighbours, owing to his impatience of conventional courtesy) most scrupulously pays himself to all women and exacts on their behalf from all others of his sex over whom he has any influence, not only towards English ladies, but to all women in the East.

A Burman in Lower Burmah may now be seen walking side by side with his wife or grown up daughter, assisting in carrying her wares from bazaar, &c., and even holding an umbrella over her, sheltering her from sun or rain (either of which *may be felt* when it appears in Burmah); instead of—as a few years ago, and as now in Upper Burmah, walking before in lordly grandeur under his htee (umbrella) indifferent to the fatigue of any such female relative, who, as in duty bound, would walk behind him, often heavily laden and unprotected from sun or rain however severe. It is true that the proverbs of the country, chiefly the sayings of Gautama, are not always flattering to the ladies, and that the Burman will point to them, generally in good-natured raillery, as proving the innate naughtiness of women and the danger of giving them much learning or power of any kind. But the first fact at least proves the Great Teacher's appreciation of the feminine capacity; and for the other—I have often been amused to notice how a Burman, when he seriously (*i.e.*, as seriously as a Burman does anything!) quotes these proverbs, explains how his own female relations, especially mother or wife, are exceptions to the unhappy rule.

That the reader may have some idea of the authorized religious view of feminine character, I will quote a few of the Buddhist proverbs on the subject:—

1. “Women act with the quick movement of lightning, with the cutting sharpness of weapons, with the rapidity of fire and air.”

2. “All rivers are trooked; all forests are made of wood; all women, going into solitude, would do what is evil.”

3. “Women's appetite is twice that of men, their intelligence four times, and their desires eight times.”

4. “Of all beings woman is most excellent; she is the chief of supporters.”

It is evident from these maxims that the Sage (Gautama) credited the ladies less with principle than ability.

Yet I still hold, after several years close observation of the national character, the opinion I early formed of my Burmese sisters: that they possess the traits of a fine type of womanly character—veneration for all things great and good, irrespective of country or people; admiration for truth, honesty and courage; sound judgment and business capacity; indefatigable industry, though it must be in pursuit of a

congenial object or for the advantage of husband or children. Add to these traits a bright and cheerful disposition, with a mind at once intelligent and religious, and I think I must be allowed to have given good grounds for my conviction: that by the higher and more general education of the future wives and mothers of Burmah (provided that education be of the right kind) the national character will best be raised.

While the women hold education in little esteem it will never become a power for good in the country; when they are brought to see its value they will spare no effort to secure its advantages for their children. Then, in a few generations we may hope to see the relative positions of the sexes more in accordance with the laws of nature and civilization: the man showing the manly energy which is now so rare, and the woman willingly vacating the masculine position she now of necessity takes for the more feminine duties of life she would gladly content herself with were it not that the indolence and false pride of her male relatives compel her to go out and do their work in the world.

One of the first and most desirable results of this improved arrangement of society would be, I believe, a higher sense of morality, purity and propriety on the part of the women, and the consequent prevention in the future of a large amount of evil which the lack of these virtues in the past has caused.

But here I would explain what I have before hinted: that the education to be so effectual for good must be of the right kind; such as, to use the definition of an early writer on this subject, "tends to develope and bring into action the faculties most requisite in the work of life, and at the same time gives such a direction to and exercises such a control over the inherent principles of our nature as is essential to the happiness of the individual and of society." A definition which, I cannot help thinking, would, if acted on during the last few years of educational activity in England, have directed the "march of intellect," to use a hackneyed phrase, in far more profitable paths than it has followed, and would have made the movement more productive of the good intended by its earnest promoters.

BOOKS ON EDUCATION.

We propose to indicate occasionally for the information of those of our readers in India who are specially interested in education the names and contents of such new books as are adapted for use either by teachers or in schools, and as appear to deserve special notice.

Foremost among works relating to the philosophy of education stands *The Theory and Practice of Teaching* by the Rev. Edward Thring (Cambridge University Press. 6s.), a thoughtful and suggestive book, by one of the foremost head masters in England, who has for many years presided with remarkable skill and success over the great school at Uppingham. So far as the actual subjects of instruction are concerned all the counsels and experiences contained in this book relate to language, and particularly to Latin and Greek, the author's own special province of instruction. But in regard to the methods by which young minds are to be developed and brought under right influence, and the spirit in which all school-work ought to be done, the work is of far wider application and cannot be read without profit by teachers of any class, whether engaged in private or secondary instruction, in schools for boys or in those for girls.

A less ambitious book, but one drawn from a wider experience, and still richer in practical suggestion, is the little work entitled *Hints on Home Teaching*, by the Rev. Edward Abbott, D.D., Head Master of the City of London School. (Seeley & Co. 3s.) No teacher or parent could read this book without feeling stronger and better able to fulfil his duty. The author never loses sight of the fundamental difference between teaching and training, between the impartation of particular facts and truths, and the formation of a right character and of intellectual habits. His observations on discipline, and on the early teaching of language and arithmetic, are especially pregnant and valuable.

Professor Simon Laurie has reprinted his useful little book, *Primary Instruction*, in relation to education. (Edinburgh: James Thin). His main object is to show "that the aim of the primary school is ethical, and that the limitations under which the primary teacher works are when properly under-

stood a help rather than a hindrance." This main purpose is worked out in detail through a very careful discussion of the chief lessons and employments of an elementary school, and with many illustrations of the most approved methods of teaching.

Dr. C. H. Schaible's *Seeing and Thinking* (W. Sonnenschein & Co. 3/6), is a well-intended and on the whole successful effort to formulate a course of elementary lessons and exercises introductory to grammar composition and logical analysis. The theory of the book is that pupils should from the first be encouraged to observe and compare the objects which surround them, *and to tell what they see*. The making of short sentences by the pupil himself, in illustration of each of the various grammatical and logical distinctions which have to be taught, is, in the author's view, preferable to the copying and manipulation of ready-made sentences, however good. The book not only contains a large and ingenious variety of simple exercises in thought and expression, but is well calculated to suggest to a good teacher many other forms of exercise such as he could invent and supply for himself.

Another book in which the same general principle is illustrated in connexion with the training of infants is the *Illustrated Manual of Object Lessons*, by Henrietta and Wilhelmina Rooper (W. Sonnenschein & Co. 3/6). It contains hints for lessons in thinking and speaking, adapted for infant schools, kindergartens and nurseries, and is mainly founded on the German work of Dr. Wiedermann. The authors evince much sympathy and freshness of mind in the manner in which they handle little conversational lessons on familiar household objects and the phenomena of life. They carefully avoid the pedantry which so often encumbers the "object lesson" with the names of qualities and other abstractions; and they attach special importance to a method of questioning, which, instead of satisfying itself with answers in single words, insists almost in every case on obtaining from the scholars entire sentences by way of answers. This is after all the only way by which a teacher can satisfy himself that what he says is actually appropriated by his pupil; and the authors of this book have done well to emphasise thus the importance of a practical rule which is too often overlooked.

The new requirements of the Code of Regulations of the English Education Department have stimulated the production of a great number and variety of reading-books, especially in the departments of history, geography, and poetry adapted for recitation. A detailed examination of these would occupy too much of our space; but it may suffice to say generally that the elementary reading books of Nelson's Royal series, of Messrs. Chambers, the Granville series of Messrs. Burns and Oates, of Messrs. Blackie and Griffith and Farran (1s. to 2s.), are among the most attractive and useful which have yet come under our notice.

Those of our readers who attach importance to the elements of economic science as a branch of popular education, or who have read the writings of the late Mr. William Ellis on that subject, will welcome the publication of Mrs. Fenwick Miller's *Readings in Social Economy* (Longman & Co. 5s.), in which some of the simplest elementary truths respecting capital, labour, wages, thrift and the conditions of industrial success generally, are set forth in a clear and attractive form. In the hands of a thoughtful teacher each of these reading-lessons will serve as the basis for much valuable questioning and illustration, and is well calculated to set scholars thinking about the social laws which so largely influence their own well-being.

Mr. William Lant Carpenter, B.A., B.Sc., has published, with some additions, under the title *Energy in Nature* (Cassell & Co. 3/6), the substances of a course of six lectures which he has delivered under the auspices of the Gilchrist Educational Trust. The subjects are matter and motion, force and energy, heat, chemical attraction, electricity, magnetism, and energy in organic nature. The author shows his hereditary interest in the pursuit of science and in the spread of popular education, and has been very successful in presenting some of the latest results of physical investigation in a clear and interesting manner. The lectures have proved in many places most stimulating and acceptable to large audiences of working men, and their re-publication in this attractive form, with ample and telling illustrations, will be of great service to teachers of science.

The National Society has done wisely in inducing Sir John Lubbock to re-publish in the form of a reading-book,

under the head *Chapters in Popular Natural History* (National Society's Depository, '1/6), the substance of some of the author's well-known speculations and experiments in regard to insects and wild flowers. The book is arranged as a reading book for use in the advanced classes in elementary and higher schools, and is well calculated to awaken in young readers a keener and more observant interest in familiar objects and in the common phenomena of life.

THE ORIGIN OF THE INDIAN ALPHABET.

Abstract of a paper read at the meeting of the Sixth Oriental Congress, held September, 1883, at Leiden, by ROBERT NEEDHAM CUST.

Mr. Cust, in his desire to narrow the question, presents four postulates to prove the *possibility* of the derivation of the Indian alphabetic system from the Phenician.

I. That at some remote period the Phenician written character was derived from the Hieratic form of the Egyptian Ideographs of the Old Empire, notably the Prisse Papyrus in the National Library, Paris.

II. That the Phenician Inscription of the Moabite Stone is the oldest monument, with a definite date, of pure alphabetic writing, and dates back to the ninth century before the Christian era.

III. That the alphabet of that Inscription is a complete and highly elaborated one, evidencing a long and established usage, and is considered by many to be the parent of every other form of alphabetic writing in Europe or Asia that exists at the present moment.

IV. That there has existed from time immemorial commercial intercourse by land across Persia and Afghanistan, and by sea from the Persian Gulf and Red Sea, betwixt Western Asia with India in its fullest geographical extent.

He argues the *probability* of this derivation thus :

I. That the copious and garrulous Indian literature, committed to alphabetic writing from a date anterior to that of Alexander the Great, has given no account of its growth and sought for no explanation of its origin.

II. It cannot have sprung into life fully developed, and there is no trace anywhere in India, where Inscriptions are freely used, of any gradual growth.

III. The general resemblance in system of the Indian

alphabet with those of Europe and Asia, which are undoubtedly of Phœnician origin, is striking, and points decidedly to a common source, there being no pre-existing necessity of one—and only one—system of representing sounds by symbols, and no likelihood of the derivation being the other way, from India westward.

Other points of evidences bearing on the question are:—

The allusion in the book of Esther (viii., 9), “Unto every province according to the writing thereof,” from “India to Ethiopia.” Varied systems of writing were therefore familiar facts to all at that time.

At the time of Alexander’s invasion of India, B.C. 327, the art of writing for private purposes was known there; the Greek historians mention the material used, strips of bark and pieces of linen, but say nothing about any radical difference between their own system of writing and that of India.

No Indian writing of the Vedic time has been preserved.

The earliest writing that has survived is that of the Asoka Inscriptions B.C. 253—60. The language is Pali, one of the Prakrits, the first stage in the decomposition of Sanskrit, and the parents of the great modern vernaculars of Northern India. The character used in these Inscriptions is magnificent and highly developed. Besides being used in the Neo-Arian, this form of writing has been borrowed and adapted to the Dravidian languages of Southern India, the Tibeto-Burman group, and the languages of the Indo-Chinese Peninsula; it also crossed the sea to the islands of the Indian Archipelago.

Of the ten important Inscriptions one only, in the Peshawar district, is distinct in character, and the writing is from right to left being of a cursive Iranian type, which has been traced to an Aramaic original; the language is a dialect of Pali, and the matter is the same as that of the other Inscriptions.

The South Asoka character is written from left to right, as is the case with the modern Indian alphabets, and also with the Himyaritic and its descendant the Ethiopic. Internal evidence proves that the alphabet did not originally contain a sufficient number of signs, and leads us to believe that this alphabet was an alien one, adapted to express the peculiar Indian sounds. New signs had to be made by differentiating some of the old ones to express the cerebral sounds.

This seems to be all the evidence forthcoming. The late Mr. Burnell had contributed his convictions on these points:

I. The art of writing in India is of a later date than that of the Moabite Stone. The great Sanskrit Poems were orally handed down. The appearance of prose commentary marks the date of the introduction of writing.

II. There is no trace in India of more than one alphabetic system, nor of any elaboration or gradual growth of ideographs or syllabaries.

III. No Arian or Dravidian nation ever invented an alphabet, and the probability is that both the Asoka alphabets came (by different routes) from Western Asia.

There are three possible sources. I. It might have been introduced by Phenician traders. This is especially unlikely and may be rejected, for Phenician communication with India had ceased too early to accord with the rest of the facts. II. It might have come by the Persian Gulf, derived from an Aramaic used in Persia. This seems to have been certainly the case with the North Asoka character, but that of the South presents much more serious difficulties. Mr. Burnell is disposed to favour this alternative, notwithstanding the fact that the existence of this Aramaic character has not been conclusively evidenced. However, a recently-discovered Babylonian tablet in the British Museum may supply the missing link in the evidence. III. The third hypothesis is that it is derived from the Himyaritic alphabet of South Arabia by the Phenicians and came to India by the Red Sea. This idea was started by Weber and has been urged by Isaac Taylor and Lenormant. There are points of likeness between the Ethiopic, an avowed descendant of the Himyaritic, and the Asoka, greatly worth noticing.

The objections are, that culture, religion and all arts have in India proceeded from North to South, and that the proved existence of this Himyaritic branch of the Phenician alphabet is not early enough. Perhaps if Southern Arabia could be explored earlier Inscriptions might be found. The matter will probably never be very conclusively proved, but on the whole Mr. Cust leans to the third hypothesis.

SOCIAL AND PHILANTHROPIC INSTITUTIONS IN THE WEST.

II.—THE GIRLS' HOME CERTIFIED INDUSTRIAL SCHOOL,
22 AND 41 CHARLOTTE STREET, PORTLAND PLACE, LONDON.

The Institution which we describe this month is one of the many Homes now established in England for the training of destitute children, who might otherwise fall into crime. It is on a small scale, but that point is one of special advantage, for personal influence and the supervision of individual character

are much more possible when the numbers are small than in large schools. The promoters of this Home aim at encouraging a family relation among the inmates, and thus to draw out those dormant feelings which always have a powerful effect in leading neglected children into right ways, and in helping them to become well-conducted members of society. The family constitution of the Home is also of benefit in regard to the domestic work which the girls are taught, and which is to be their means of support in after life. Instruction in household duties of a varied kind is more easily arranged for a few than for many. Indeed, in large schools the discipline will not generally allow of individual training of this kind. Altogether this unpretending little Home is well worth notice and study. It was one of the institutions which owe their origin to the wise sympathy and large-hearted principles of the late Rev. Frederick Denison Maurice, whose interest in social progress was so marked and so genuine.

The Hon. Sec. of the Home, Miss Bell, published not long ago an account of the Girls' Home, and we extract from that pamphlet the following description of its daily life and aims:—

"The original house, No. 22, is an ordinary-looking house, with two steps up to the door, on which are the words 'The Girls' Home,' in white letters. The door having been opened you find yourself in a small hall; there is a door at the farther end facing the street door, and another to the left. We will go first into the 'parlour,' the room to the left. A photograph of Mr. Maurice is over the chimney piece, on one side is the Government Certificate of the 'Industrial School,' on the other a copy of the first prospectus of the Home framed; a large press is in the recess at the left of the fireplace, and at the right is an office table on which are writing materials and the visitors' book in which you will write your name before you leave. There are bookshelves against the wall above the table, full of books given for the use of the girls; on the walls are a few engravings and photographs of some of the early friends of the Home. A round table, a few chairs and a small sofa make up the rest of the furniture. The carpet and the tablecover are green, the sofa is covered with a small-patterned dark cretonne, the chairs are cane, there is one leather easy chair, the curtains are of unbleached calico with a border of red twill. A small piano given by a kind friend helps to enlighten the evenings.

"Now, let us go to the work-room; this has two large windows, and a glass door opening into the play-ground. There is a canary in a cage in one window. The walls of the room have been decorated by the Kyrle Society. Above the dado is a border two feet deep of pale blue cloth, with a design of wild

flowers painted upon it; and above this, on the wall, are six paintings on panel in sepia, representing reaping, gleanings and other rural scenes; on the wall facing the windows, and above the wild flowers, are verses by Mrs. Hemans, painted clearly on wood; and over the chimney a lovely sketch of a branch of apple blossom, and two little pictures, of a child crying for the moon and a girl watching a bird flying home.

"Upstairs is the school-room, or rather two rooms with folding doors; the largest has three windows looking into the playground, the other one large window, so that there is plenty of light and air. There are capital large maps on the walls, a clock over the chimney-piece, a set of bookshelves and cupboard for the slates, &c., a blackboard in swing frame, a small table and benches with backs, and desks complete the furniture.

"Above these rooms is the Matron's bedroom, in which is a bed with neat chintz furniture, and two little cots, each with the name of the little one who sleeps in it, and the usual bedroom furniture. The room has two doors, one opening on to the landing, the other into a large room with eight little beds along the sides, each with the name of its occupant, and along the centre of the room is a washing-stand with eight basins, mugs, and each girl's tooth-brush, flannel, &c., and a towel rail with pegs on which hang each girl's towel. There are two similar bedrooms above. The basins are all of white crockery, and sometimes a *new* girl will make a terrible smash emptying her basin, or perhaps in pulling the bedclothes off with a flourish to make her bed she will sweep down a couple of beds. This is very provoking, but we think it better a girl should learn in the House how to handle breakable things, than to have enamelled basins and tin mugs which can be knocked about, and so when she goes into service have to learn on the crockery of her mistress.

"Now we must go quite to the bottom of the house. There is a staircase from the hall, which has on the one side a thick glass wall, so that it is light. Turning to the left, at the foot of the stairs, is the kitchen with its large window opening into the area. There is a closed fireplace (kitchener), a dresser and shelves, with a good display of white plates, dishes, mugs, soup-basins, and bright tin dishcovers, saucepans, &c. Pussy is probably sitting by the fire, and some savoury soup, or a stew, is in process of cooking, for I am supposing this is the morning, and the young cook has scoured the floor, and is preparing to dish up the dinner, which will be served at one o'clock. Some of the girls dine in the kitchen, the larger number dine in the work-room.

"Leaving the kitchen, we go into the stone passage, also well

lighted; half the passage is partitioned off with a thick glass screen, behind which is a dressing-room for the girls to use in the middle of the day, as it would not do to allow them to go up to the bedrooms whenever they wanted to wash their hands; and here they change their frocks in which they do their rough morning work, and make themselves tidy to sit down to needle-work or lessons. The other side of the dressing-room is also of glass, with a door opening into the laundry, so that the girls can be seen at work with the laundress ironing and folding and mangling. Everything is arranged to give as much light and air as possible. The washhouse is entered further along the passage, it is underground, and lighted and aired by a skylight and ventilator.

"No. 41 is a smaller house than 22, but is arranged in much the same manner. There is a pretty little drawing-room, which the girls feel it quite a privilege to have charge of. The work-room has pictures on the walls, but it is not so artistically decorated as the room at 22. In this house Mrs. Pearson, the Superintendent, her husband, her little boy and sixteen girls live. Breakfast is at eight o'clock; twice a week this is oatmeal porridge and milk, on other mornings bread and dripping, or bread and treacle, and cocoa. On Sundays tea or coffee. Dinner at one, with as much variety as can be given with economy. On Sunday all the inmates of each house dine together, which brings on the family feeling very pleasantly.

"The age for admission to the Home is not restricted. Sometimes a girl of six years will be brought in, sometimes one of twelve, perhaps the little one is able to read while the elder one does not know her letters, making the arrangement of classes very difficult. It takes a few days for a girl to get accustomed to the novelty of everything about her; but she soon sees it is the custom to be polite and not to use bad language, and she gets ashamed of being dirty and untidy. It is cheering and also touching to see the first blush at anything wrong. Some of our poor girls come in so used to what is coarse and bad that they do not feel as those who have been brought up would, so when we see the colour rise, even before a reprimand is given, we look upon it as a most hopeful sign. We have some girls whose good influence is of great value, who would scorn anything underhand or deceitful. Nothing in the house is locked up but money, and of this as little as possible is kept in the house. Our principle is to place confidence in the girls, for without this they would never prove trustworthy. Occasionally, girls who have been with us but a short time take sugar or a bit of pudding, but for very shame this is soon given up. One girl who used to be very troublesome in this way, was by way of

experiment put in charge of the kitchen and larder. From that day she never touched the food, nothing was missing; she has been cook for some time in her turn, and promises to become a good faithful servant.

“The little girls walk in the park and play there every morning. The elder ones are out some part of nearly every day, and all have play and swing in the play-ground. Everything is done to make the Sunday pleasant.

“This Home has existed seventeen years. It is visited annually by a Government Inspector and by one from the Reformatory and Refuge Union, both of whom accord high praise to the progress made by the girls. The amount of industrial work done in the Home increases yearly, yet the Secretary is able to say, in the Report for 1882, ‘The schooling, as is seen in the reports of the Inspectors, has not been neglected;’ nor have the play hours been abridged, which goes far to prove the truth of Mr. Maurice’s words in the first prospectus of the Home, that ‘Where lessons in the business of the housemaid, the parlour-maid and the cook, and in all kinds of needlework, are combined with lessons in reading, writing, arithmetic, singing and in the Scriptures, the lessons are more prized and better remembered, and the School becomes a better preparation for life.’

“An annual visit to the sea side is effected, and the anniversary day is observed as a festival, on which those who have distinguished themselves by good conduct receive some mark of recognition.”

There is no voting system in connection with this Institution; every application is considered by the Committee simply on its own merits. The Home is expressly for the homeless. The average number of girls is 43, the average age 12½ years, the majority of the girls, however, are under ten.

The Home receives grants-in-aid from Government, the School Board for London, and the Reformatory and Refuge Union. A part of the expense is met by the industrial work done, and by the sale of fancy and other work presented by ladies to the Home. The remaining portion is met by subscription and by donations of money, clothing and many other articles.

THE HOBART SCHOOL, MADRAS.

In 1875 the education of Mussulman girls was made a practical subject of discussion at Madras, and a warm interest was taken by Lord and Lady Hobart in the movement then

started for establishing elementary schools for girls of the Mahomedan community, in which they would be taught their own language and all kinds of needlework. A school was opened in that year by the Committee and was called the Hobart School. It appears from the latest Report to be making fair progress, and the Committee seem to contemplate establishing another school on the same plan at Triplicane, Madras. The present head mistress of the Hobart School, Miss Cripps, has greatly improved its order and discipline, and she has now qualified in Hindustani, which adds to her efficiency. The number of girls in daily attendance was seventy-five. It is satisfactory to find that one pupil has been considered competent to be employed as an assistant in the school. The institution appears altogether to have been making a fair and steady progress. A part of the work done by the children is sold to meet expenses, and the Committee hope that when necessary the pupils may use their proficiency with the needle as a means of livelihood. The importance of continuing the education of these Mahomedan girls after they have left school has been fully recognised by the Committee, and in concert with the Madras Branch of the National Indian Association they are making arrangements by means of which Miss Cripps will have time for visiting the former pupils at their own homes and imparting to them further instruction. The school is under Government inspection and receives about Rs. 1,100 as a grant, and Mary Lady Hobart has contributed Rs. 10,000, the interest, from which now furnishes about twelve per cent. of the income of the school. Their Highnesses the Princess of Tanjore and the Dowager Maharani of Vizianagram have also given liberal support to the institution. H.H. the Prince of Arcot has promised to found a scholarship in the school tenable for five years.

The funds have, however, often been insufficient; but, Captain Awdry, who undertook the treasurership in 1881, has made special exertions to obtain more subscriptions, and he has succeeded in enlisting the sympathy of some influential Mahomedan gentlemen in the school, and the present financial position is therefore improved. Three pupils of this school received prizes for needlework in the Needlework Exhibition of the Madras Branch of the National Indian Association as follows: Nezib Nessa, Rs. 10, for white Indian embroidery; Azeeza Bi, Rs. 10, for crewel work; Kathi Ja Bi, Rs. 10, for Indian gold embroidery. Mrs. Carmichael had lately acted as Secretary of the Hobart School, and she took great interest in its progress.

SHORNALATA: A TALE OF HINDU LIFE.

BY TARAK NATH GANGULI.

*Translated for this Journal by Mrs. J. B. KNIGHT.**(Continued from page 12.)**(All rights in this translation remain with the author of the tale.)*

[For the assistance of the reader the names of the principal characters in the following chapters are subjoined.]

Sasibhusan, the elder brother.*Pramada*, his wife.*Bipin*, their son.*Kamini*, their daughter.*Bidhubhusan*, the younger brother.*Sarala*, his wife.*Gopal*, their son.*Shyama*, the female servant.*Thakurun Didi*, a widow.*Nilkamal*, a strolling fiddler.*Biprodas Chakravarti*, a rich resident of Burdwan.*Shornalata*, his daughter.*Hem Chandra*, his son.*Gadadhar*, brother of *Pramada*.

CHAPTER XXVIII.

VARIOUS MATTERS.

Progressing constantly in wealth, *Sasibhusan* had now become ruler over everything in the house of the *Babu*, whose faith in him was boundless. He might now have been called the *Zemindar*. The *Babu* was satisfied so long as he obtained money for luxury and wine. But in this world there is no such thing as unmixed happiness. *Sasibhusan* had attained a high position, but that position was not free from thorns. The office clerks who had formerly been anxious to see *Sasibhusan* attain that elevation, now sought the means whereby he could be deposed from it. Under the previous *Dewan* the clerks had had no facilities for taking bribes, nor had they been able to cease from work and indulge in idleness at pleasure. They had thought that *Sasibhusan* being one of themselves would, if he were made *Dewan*, give them these facilities. But *Sasibhusan* having become *Dewan* they found their condition in no way improved, they were in no less fear of him than of the former *Dewan*. So they were unanimously resolved to bring about his downfall. Clerks, accountants and cashier assembled to concert their plans, many were proposed, but to none would all consent. At length one of them, a writer named *Ram Sundar*, said, "The *Babu* has become almost imbecile from constant drinking. In his hands the estate must go to ruin. If therefore through the *Kartri Thakurani* (the lady of the house) we could get a petition

presented to the Collector Sahib, he would appoint a manager, and Sasi Babu would certainly be dismissed."

Every one agreed that Ram Sundar Babu's plan was the best, but the cashier said, "I have one objection to it, and as we are all of one mind, I may as well speak openly. I fear that if a manager be appointed we shall be deprived of even the small gains that we now make."

On this every one became thoughtful. Ram Sundar Babu replied, "In so thinking you are mistaken, our opportunities will not be lessened. The manager will not search into everything as Sasi Babu does, he will only see that the papers are straight and the cash correct. He will say nothing if Rs. 15 be charged for what costs Rs. 5, he will only see that the Collector's limit is not exceeded." Ram Sundar's assurance was pleasing to all, the meeting broke up, and each went his way home.

On the tenth day after Sarala's death the Sraddha* took place. There was no stint. What a wonderful custom this is in Bengal! He for whom in life scarcely a rupee will be spent, will be honoured with an expensive Sraddha after he is gone. If the money thus spent were paid for medical treatment many premature deaths would be avoided. After Sarala's death Bidhubhusan fell into a state of great depression. He went nowhere, was unable to attend to any business, sat constantly in one corner brooding, sometimes shedding tears. Shyama never allowed Bidhu to be alone, but left Gopal with him, or if Gopal were from home sat with him herself, telling him many stories. One day Bidhu said, "Shyama, did you never receive one letter from me?" Shyama said, "No."

"Then who signed the receipts for the registered letters in the name of Gopal?"

"No letter ever came to Gopal, nor was a receipt signed in his name. Gadadhar received registered letters and signed for them, but never Gopal."

"From whence should Gadadhar receive registered letters?"

"His uncle used to send him money."

Bidhu was seated, at these words he sprang up. "Shyama, I see it all now. This Gada took all the money I sent to you," and straightway he went out. Shyama did not understand how he should imagine that his letters had fallen into the hands of Gadadhar, therefore she followed Bidhu to induce him to come back, but she did not succeed. Bidhu went to the post office and said to the official, "To whom did you send the registered letters addressed to Gopal?"

The Munshi answered, "All these letters were delivered to Gopal Babu, here are his receipts."*

* * *Sraddha*, offering to the memory of the deceased, accompanied by feasts to Brahmins, on which very large sums are spent.

"I don't want the receipts. Send the messenger with me to point out Gopal Babu."

The Munshi immediately instructed the messenger, who took Bidhu to the house of Sasibhusan. That Gadadhar had taken the letters Bidhu had now no doubt. When they reached the door he described Gadadhar's appearance, and then said, "Is that the appearance of Gopal Babu?"

"Yes, sir, you have described it exactly."

"Then I need know no more, I understand. Go you home, but be careful not to let this get about. Gopal did not get the money, another man took it. If it gets about the thief will escape."

The messenger grew pale and trembled, "Sir, I am not to blame in this. He said to me, 'I am Gopal Babu,' therefore I gave him the letters. Will you see that I do not suffer?"

"Why should you fear? but if you speak of this and the defendant escapes I shall have you seized."

The messenger said, "It shall not be known through me," and went away with an anxious heart.

Bidhu went to the police office and related the whole to the daroga (inspector), who said, "It is now evening, the accused cannot be arrested to night, it shall be done to-morrow morning. By a few policemen the man can easily be taken."

"But if this becomes known during the night, if the accused escapes—then?"

"I will provide against that." The daroga called the constable Romesh, and said, "Take four men and keep guard on the house of Sasi Babu. To-morrow the place must be searched. The defendant is there, but be careful that nothing is known else he will escape."

Romesh recorded the names of four constables in the diary, and sent them to keep watch at Sasibhusan's house. Then he debated with himself whether or not to give warning to Gadadhar Chandra, and finally resolved against doing so, thinking, "If I am capable of feeling such compunction I am not worthy to belong to the police."

Gadadhar felt quite secure. For awhile after the return of Bidhubhusan he had felt anxious, but when four or five days had passed he thought there was no longer cause to fear. The visit that he had made to Bidhubhusan had been paid to show his innocence. The constables kept watch at Sasibhusan's house, but neither Sasibhusan nor any one else in the house suspected it. In the morning when Sasibhusan came forth to go to Kacheri he was confronted by a constable, who said, "You must please to wait a little. Our inspector is coming, the accused is in your house."

"Who is accused in my house?"

"Gadadhar Babu has appropriated registered letters addressed to some one else. This has now come out, and we are here to arrest him."

Sasibhusan then remembered that Gadadhar had received one registered letter. At the time he had suspected nothing, therefore he had made no inquiry. Gadadhar had said that his uncle had registered the letter lest it should fail to arrive, and Sasibhusan had believed him. Now hearing the truth from the constable he became furious. He called Gadadhar, and said, "Show me the registered letter that you received from your uncle."

At sight of the constable and of Sasi Babu's anger, Gadadhar ran to the private door. In the women's apartments he met Pramada, who asked why he was running. He made no answer, but went on followed by his sister and mother. Gadadhar opened the door and was going forth, when he saw another constable, and with an exclamation of dismay came in again. His mother said, "What is it, Gadadhar Chandra?"

With a loud cry he exclaimed, "Gadadhar Chandra is killed."

Pramada and his mother repeated their inquiries.

"Those registered letters——"

At this moment Sasibhusan coming in, inquired in angry tones, "Where is that wretch?"

Gadadhar fell to the ground crying, his mother and sister, looked at each other.

Sasi Babu said, "Why do you cry? as you sow you must reap. You have not only stained your own name but mine also."

Pramada and her mother were enraged at Sasibhusan's words. Gadadhar's conduct they thought nothing of, but that Sasibhusan should speak so harshly was a great grievance. The mother, addressing her daughter in a voice of distress, said, "See, child, it is as I said. At your request we came here, but I warned you to be careful that we suffered no disgrace, and you replied, 'My house is my own, who will insult you here?'"

Pramada answered, "What is the use of such talk, there is no avoiding destiny."

Sasi Babu replied, "Don't talk of destiny now. If you want to save Gadadhar dress him in women's clothes, and say he is your sister. I am going to the outer gate to the daroga."

When Sasibhusan came thither, the daroga said, "There is an accused man in your house, bring him out or it will be necessary to make a search."

Sasi Babu replied, "Pray, sir, consider, this is a respectable

house. If you search and after all there should be no defendant there!"

The daroga looked at Bidhubhusan, who said, "The accused is in this house." Sasi Babu looked at Bidhu with angry eyes, but the latter did not speak. All went into the house, but in no place could they find Gadadhar Chandra. Then Bidhu said, "Search the kitchen." The daroga assented, and then said to Sasibhusan, "We will stand here and you must cause your household to pass before us." Sasibhusan at first objected, but the daroga would not listen, so he was obliged to give the necessary orders. First Pramada, then Gadadhar in woman's dress, lastly the mother went forth. Bidhu pointed out Gadadhar. The daroga said to Sasibhusan, "Forbid anyone going in. Who is that?" Before Sasi could speak, Pramada's mother said, "That is my big daughter, Gadadhar Chandra." The daroga bade a constable seize him. Gadadhar exclaiming, "Didi, I am lost," ran into the room, a constable after him. In due course he was committed for trial by the magistrate, and sentenced by the sessions judge to fourteen years' imprisonment.

Gadadhar was punished, but that did not bring peace of mind to Bidhubhusan. He could not endure to stay longer in that house. It was like living through in memory all the suffering he had borne there. The happiness he had known was altogether forgotten in the grief. His savings were gradually exhausted. After much thought he again went to Calcutta, taking with him Shyama and Gopal. There he made arrangements for Gopal to serve as cook in a family and to attend Dr. Duff's school. Shyama also became a servant in the same house as Gopal. Then Bidu thought, "What shall I do? one earns money in the Panchali troupe, it is true, but it is a degrading occupation." So instead of resuming the life of a musician he went into the Dacca district in the employ of the Deputy-Collector.

CHAPTER XXIX.

NILKAMAL.

Nilkamal spent the night in Bidhubhusan's house, but went on his way early the following morning without arousing any one. Near Ramnagar there were some shops at which he bought a suit of clothes, in which he dressed himself, and pursued his course, every step or two as he went casting upon his clothes a glance of admiration. His long cherished hope was fulfilled, and with these proud thoughts in his mind he arrived at home about one o'clock.

At the sound of Nilkamal's voice, his mother and his two brothers came out to welcome him with tears of joy. He had left home in anger, but now after four years this was forgotten. Nilkamal in his new clothes and with money in his purse appeared like a little Nawab. He required his dinner not later than ten in the morning.* His brothers dare not say anything to him, because he was now a great man, he had money. After eating, Nilkamal went into the village and told many tales of his theatrical experiences. But no happiness is lasting, that of Nilkamal ended almost before it began. One day he sat gossiping in the house of Gour Hari Ghosh, surrounded by listening neighbours, when suddenly one among them said, "Nilkamal, what character did you take?" Nilkamal lost countenance, which being observed by another of the group, the question was repeated. He became angry, but only said, "Is there any clown in the Panchali troupe?"

The first questioner answered, "You were not with the Panchali troupe all the time, what part did you take in the theatrical troupe?" Nilkamal could no longer repress his anger, he screamed out, "What business is that of yours? you are all ignorant rustics."

Amused at his anger, one said in jest, "Nilkamal filled the tobacco pipes." Nilkamal smiled, thinking the danger was over, but presently another said, "Nilkamal played Hanuman." Nilkamal exclaimed furiously, "Who told you that I played Hanuman?" and was walking off, but at sight of his angry countenance four or five called after him, "Hanuman! Hanuman!"

In his rage Nilkamal seized one of them and struck him, whereupon seven or eight others took up the cry. After vainly striving to revenge himself upon his persecutors he strode off home, followed by a dozen people, uttering, "Hanuman! Hanuman!" Wherever he went they followed, and as they went their numbers increased. At length he reached home, pursued by boys dinning into his ears the nectarous cry.

Observing the rage of Nilkamal, his mother asked, "Why does their crying Hanuman make you angry?" He answered, "They are strangers, they may say it, but will you also begin it? I won't stay in this place." He stuffed his clothes into his bag and went out. His mother did all she could to dissuade him from going, but he would not listen to her. He went off followed by the village boys repeating the maddening cry, and on reaching a new village fresh enemies took it up. When his brothers on their return home learned from their mother what

* The principal meal is usually taken about noon, except in the case of men of business.

had occurred, they set off in search, but could not trace him. The next day it was the same. At a distance of eight or ten miles from Ramnagar they heard that a madman had passed calling out, "Hanuman!" but no one could say where he was gone.

(To be continued.)

REVIEW.

VERNACULAR SCIENCE PRIMERS. NO. I. HUMAN PHYSIOLOGY.

By ASUTOSH MITRA. Calcutta. 1882.

WE hail the appearance of this little work with very great pleasure, since it admirably fulfils the very excellent design of the author conveyed in the following words from the introduction:—"Until now no work has appeared in the Bengali Vernacular by the aid of which young and old, and even women, could with little labour, and independently of the assistance of others, become acquainted with the actions of the human body and their causes. To meet this want I have prepared this little book, and that it may do so as effectually as possible I have striven to use simple language, and to avoid the introduction of difficult subjects and unnecessary terms."

The writer's endeavour has been well realised. The most ordinary intelligence cannot fail to comprehend and to be interested in the clear and simple description, aided by illustrations, of the different organs and their uses, the arterial, venous and nerve systems, the blood and its circulation, the breathing apparatus, food, hunger, thirst, and the several senses.

To this is added, by permission, a guide for the Feeding of Infants, by Professor McConnell, of the Medical College, Calcutta, and a chapter by the author on the Preservation of Health, full of the most valuable suggestions. The work was revised in passing through the press by Dr. Mullen, of Darganga, Bengal.

We congratulate the author upon his success and the Bengali public upon the acquisition of a remarkably clear introduction to a very important subject.

THE STATE OF PUDUKOTA.

We have received the Report on the Administration of Pudukota, in Southern India, for 1881-82, by the Hon. A. Sashia Sastri, C.S.I. It contains some interesting general information about this little State, from which we summarise the following facts. Pudukota, which lies between Trichinopoly and Madura, contains 1,049 square miles, and it extends 60 miles from east to west and 45 from north to south. The population is about 300,000. There are 1,580 villages, some of which (jaghirs) are set apart for the support of certain branches of the reigning family, and there are besides twelve kinds of rent-free lands, held on condition of military or other service, or assigned for the support of pagodas, mosques, Brahmin communities, &c. All other lands are liable for the full assessment payable to the State. The revenue is derived, in addition to the land payments, from rates on houses, shops, looms and oil mills; also from the abkari (duty on manufacture and sale of spirits) and from salt. As Pudukota lies inland only earth salt can be made. A certain class make salt manufacture their special occupation. The saline earth is scraped, laid in heaps, dissolved in water and exposed in flat pans during the hottest part of the day for evaporation. The salt which is left in the pans is scraped out with iron ladles and stored in pits. The jungle contains now no valuable timber as formerly, but it supplies fuel, and wood, for roofs and for implements of husbandry, and grazing land. Wild pigs, deer and hares abound in the jungle, and also wild cows and bulls. The rivers that pass through Pudukota are very small, but irrigation is managed by means of large tanks filled by these rivers, by smaller tanks which collect the rain water flowing down the slopes, by ponds (or oornies), jungle streams and wells.

The head of the administration is the Sirkole, or minister, which post the Hon. Sashia Sastri now holds. All the public departments are under his supervision and control, and he has a seat in the Appeal Court, over which H.E. the Raja presides. The State is divided into three taluqs, under three Tahsildars, each taluq having also a Deputy Tahsildar. The Tahsildars are under an officer known as the Karbar, whose position resembles that of a Collector and District Magistrate in British India.

In the year under review there was a want of rain, and therefore the crops were poor, but on the whole the State has been making progress. Roads had been remetalled and provided with tunnels, and 257 tanks had been repaired. On these

works, a large sum had been expended. The judicial procedure was being carried on with less delay, and the police becoming more organised. With regard to education, collegiate teaching had been added on to the Anglo Vernacular School established in 1857, and of the twelve students sent up for matriculation, five passed, one of these standing fifth in the Presidency. The results of the school examination were satisfactory, and the number of pupils on the rolls had increased by nearly one hundred.

The Hon. Sashia Sastri concludes the Report by regretting that less had been done than might have been in the year owing to his ill health.

THE LATE BABOO PEARY CHAND MITTER.

We notice with regret the death, at Calcutta, of Baboo Peary Chand Mitter, at the advanced age of nearly 70 years. Few men have taken a more prominent part in the political, social and literary life of Calcutta during the past half-century than Baboo Peary Chand Mitter. He was one of the early fruits of the old Hindoo College, and a devoted admirer of David Hare, "the father of Indian education." The young men of that generation displayed an earnestness and single-hearted zeal in literary pursuits, and in the diffusion of knowledge among their countrymen that we fail to recognise in later times, and amongst the foremost in every good word and work was our deceased friend. Government service was open to him, but he preferred the independence of commercial pursuits, in which he engaged with varying success. He was for many years Secretary to the Calcutta Public Library, which post gave him opportunities for study and for literary pursuits. From his early youth he was connected with the press, and was a frequent and valued contributor to the *Calcutta Review*, as well as to the various Calcutta newspapers. He was also the author of a number of works of light literature in Bengali, published under the name of "Tekchand Thakur," one of which—"The Spoilt Boy"—has appeared in a translation in the columns of this Journal, and which have attained great popularity among his countrymen and countrywomen. Many of his writings are specially adapted for women's reading. Baboo Peary Chand Mitter was an active member of the British Indian Society, of the Agri-Horticultural Society, to whose Journal he was a valued contributor, of the School-Book Society, a Fellow of the Calcutta University, a Justice of the Peace and an Honorary Magistrate,

and for many years a member of the Municipal Corporation of Calcutta. In 1867 he was appointed a member of the Bengal Legislative Council, and the Act for the Prevention of Cruelty to Animals was passed at his instance. On the establishment of the Society to carry out this Act he was its first Secretary, and afterwards one of its Vice-Presidents.

For some years Peary Chand Mitter had been in failing health; and now that he is no more his friends, both native and English (and he had very many), will look back with pride and pleasure upon a career marked, in no ordinary degree, by literary activity and public usefulness.

THE LATE MIRZA PEER BUX.

“Hast thou seen with life incessant
Bubbles gliding under ice,
Bodied forth and evanescent,
No one knows by what device?
Such are thoughts. A wind-swept meadow,
Mimicking a troubled sea,
Such is Life! and Death a shadow
From the rock Eternity.”—WORDSWORTH.

I have no intention of writing the life of the greatest and the oldest of the Indian gentlemen resident in England, Mirza Peer Bux, whom we have lately lost. I would fain leave it to more skilful and practised pens than mine. But, however poor and insignificant may be the offering with which I approach his memory, I hope the sincerity and warmth, the love and reverence which accompany it will render it acceptable.

Mirza Peer Bux left India in the prime of his life. He visited a good many cities, at some of which he made a long stay, as at Constantinople, whence he repaired to France. In Paris he stopped no fewer than thirteen years; after which he came to England and fixed his residence in London, where he lived till his death, which occurred on the 20th of December, 1883. It is not of what he saw or met with during his life passed in so many cities of remarkable fame and interest that I wish to speak. It is the personal qualities of the man upon which I should like to dwell for a moment.

Mirza Peer Bux had a mind free from prejudice and bias, a soul which hankered after nothing but the amelioration of the condition of his countrymen, and a heart full of generosity, kindness and benevolence. He was always ready to assist every one who in search of help was so fortunate as to approach

him. He had not only sympathy for the poor and distressed, but gave them positive relief, if possible :—

“ Careless their merits or their faults to scan,
His pity gave ere charity began.
Thus to relieve the wretched was his pride
And ev’n his failings lean’d to virtue’s side.”

To those younger than himself who stood in need of advice he gave good counsel, which, proceeding as it did from his long and ripe experience and extensive knowledge of the world, was of inestimable value.

India is a pre-eminently conservative country, that is to say, a place where caste prejudices and religious superstitions reign supreme. Hence the jealousy, hatred, aversion and enmity between nation and nation, which are eating into the very life of that country. Mirza Peer Bux was so free from this prejudice that it was impossible to realize the fact that he was born and bred in India. Like law he looked upon everybody with an impartial and equal eye. He was colour blind, so to speak. He made no distinction between a Parsee or a Bengalee, a Marhattee or a Pangahée. To him Hindoos and Mohannadans were equal. They were to him like two apples of the eye, one as dear as the other. His mind was, indeed, a rose which did not bear the thorn of prejudice. And yet, strange to say, he was so full of religious fire. His long residence in this damp country had not chilled the warmth and fervour of his belief in our religion. These two antagonistic qualities—his perfect freedom from prejudice and his profound belief, amounting to bigotry, in the Mohamadan religion—strike me as the brightest side of his character, and prove him a man of great firmness of mind and of principle. He kept equilibrium between these two, and did not allow one to override the other.

He had a peculiar and unrivalled relish for the politics of India. Wherever there was a meeting about any Indian question Mirza Peer Bux was sure to be there, if he only knew of it. Besides he always attended such permanent Societies as the East India Association, and warmly took part in the discussions. Nor could even illness prevent him; so long as he was able to move he was certain to attend. His last moments on this earth manifested his strong passion for Indian politics, and suggest a theme for a mournful poem, which it is, by-the-by, the intention of the present writer to compose. An hour or two prior to his death, Mirza Peer Bux joined what I call a private gathering held for the purpose of considering an address to be presented to Mr. Gladstone on his last birthday, which will soon be presented by a deputation consisting of some of the Indians in this country. On my entering the room of the meeting I saw Mirza

Peer Bux well wrapped up sitting in an easy chair. As I shook hands, he said, "I have been so ill, Hamid Ali Khan, since I called upon you last (now about three months ago) that I almost despaired of my life. My face was swollen, and I could hardly eat anything. I think I caught a cold. It was so bitterly cold that day." I replied, "I am very sorry to hear it. If I had known it before I should have called to see you, and done whatever lay in my power. Why did you not let me know? You have been long ill. You must take care of yourself." "Thanks, my dear boy," said he with a smile, as he pressed my hand; "but there was no need for it, or I should have sent for you."

This conversation took place about five o'clock in the evening. A little before six Mirza Peer Bux left the meeting. About seven, on his way home, he expired :—

"No earthly clinging—
No lingering gaze—
No strife at parting
No sore amaze—
But sweetly, gently
He passed away !
From the world's dim twilight,
To endless day.

The Mohammadans, or rather the whole Indian community, have lost in him one of its leading members in this country, a sincere and zealous well-wisher of India, an indefatigable and ardent exponent of its cause, a man full of purity, sincerity and integrity, free from all manner of bias or partiality. We shall long miss his firm figure, his large shining eyes and broad striking forehead from the midst of our society and meetings. We shall not forget his pleasant conversation and courteous manners. We shall longer remember the gentle accents which uttered so many valuable advice, and restored peace and tranquillity to so many a disturbed heart. Our recollection of him will pay to his memory a tribute which no monument raised in his honour will equal or surpass.

As we have buried him* with proper observance of the funeral rites of our religion, so after our fashion we shall conclude this small though sincere tribute to his memory. May the Lord of Lords receive him in His Eternal Grace and shed upon him everlasting comfort, happiness and pleasure ! Amen.

HAMID ALI.

* For a brief account of the interment of Mirza Peer Bux and the question of the burying of the Mohammedans, I refer the reader to my letter published in the *Daily News* of the 4th of January. I cannot, however, help observing here that it is obligatory on our Mussulman brethren to subscribe towards buying a piece of ground for burying our dead.

INDIAN INTELLIGENCE.

Their Royal Highnesses the Duke and Duchess of Connaught inspected the Bethune Schools during their visit to Calcutta. The Chief Justice, Sir Richard Garth, who is President of the School Committee, Lady Garth, and many members of the Committee were present to receive them. The Duke and Duchess expressed themselves pleased with the specimens of work presented to them, and with the music, both native and foreign, performed by some of the pupils. Miss Chandra Mukhi Bose and Mrs. Kadambini Ganguli, the two graduates from the School, were present, and had the honour of being introduced to their Royal Highnesses.

The members of the Elphinstone Club, the representative institution of the Parsee community in Bombay, entertained lately Mr. Pestonjee H. Cama at dinner, as a mark of respect for his liberality in founding the Hospital for Women and Children in that city.

The rules for women students of medicine in the Grant Medical College, Bombay, have been published. The course of study will extend over four years, and periodical examinations will be held. Matriculation will not be required. The students have to produce a certificate of qualification in English and general knowledge (Standard C of the Educational Department). The entrance fee will be Rs. 5, and the monthly fee the same. For the present it is proposed to form two classes of qualified medical women, but the lower class will, it is said, be only a temporary arrangement.

Dr. Nisikanta Chattopadhyaya has received the appointment of Principal of the Nizam's College, Hyderabad.

The two successful candidates for the Bengal Government Agricultural Scholarships are Babu Debendro Nath Mookerjee, M.A., Assistant Professor at the Krishnagur College, and Babu Phoni Bhushan Bose, M.A. It is expected that in future only one scholarship will be granted.

The Gilchrist Trustees have decided to admit candidates from Ceylon to compete with those of India, for the single scholarship of £150 per annum to be henceforth annually awarded.

It is proposed to establish an exclusively Parsee Club at Bombay, to be called after Lord Ripon. Sir Jamsetji Jejeebhoy has expressed his willingness to join it, and 80 members have been enrolled at once. The chief promoters of the new Club are Mr. Pherozeshah M. Mehta, Mr. M. W. Banaji and Mr. J. N. Tata.

The following have had the honour of being appointed Companions of the Indian Empire:—Nawab Imam Baksh Khan, Chief of the Leghari Tribe, Punjab Frontier; Sirdir Ajit Singh, Attariwala; Naoroji Fardunji, Esq.; the Zemindar of Punganur; Babu Chota Lall Sijwar; Diwan Het Ram, Chief Minister of Rewah.

His Highness the Maharajah of Travancore has received from the President of the French Republic the decoration and the letter patent of appointment as Officer de l'Instruction Publique.

Mr. K. N. Kabraji has made a Gujarati version of Sheridan's *School for Scandal*, adapted to modern Parsee life. He has followed the original text closely, depicting at the same time Parsee society in its various aspects. The piece was performed lately at the Esplanade Theatre, Bombay, to a large and influential audience of native citizens. It appears that the leading characters rendered their parts in the most satisfactory manner, and were greatly applauded. The *Times of India* considers that the play is likely to meet with great favour among the native community.

The *Indian Daily News* writes:—"As the first fruit of his practical knowledge of iron working, and of his London experience, Mr. B. D. Pal Chowdhry, who has lately returned from England, has brought out with him a moving iron pumping engine with its latest improvements, at a cost of about Rs. 10,000, with a view to irrigate the plantations in his own zemindari. This is an advance in the right direction, and it is to be hoped that other Zemindars will follow his example."

KESHUB CHUNDER SEN.

We deeply regret to have to record the death, on Dec. 8th, of Keshub Chunder Sen, whose name was widely known in England and in India as a religious and social reformer of great force of character and simplicity of life. By his earnest eloquence in former years he stimulated many to abandon their superstitious customs, and to promote female education, temperance and other useful aims. Mr. Sen's health had for some time caused anxiety to his friends. His visit, some years ago, to England aroused great interest here in regard to progress in India, and his influence will long be felt among his countrymen.

PERSONAL INTELLIGENCE.

At the late Examination held at the Inns of Court, the Council of Legal Education awarded to the following Certificates that they had satisfactorily passed a Public Examination:—**Mr. Constantine Demetrius Panioty** (Lincoln's Inn), **Mr. Shapurji Kavasji Sanjana** (Inner Temple), and **Mr. Rastamji Dhanjibhoy Sethna** (Middle Temple),

The following passed a satisfactory Examination in Roman Law:—**Mr. Mancherjee Merwanjee Bhownaggree** (Lincoln's Inn), **Mr. Mohammed Abdool Majid** (Middle Temple), and **Mr. Mahomed Hameed Ullah** (Lincoln's Inn).

The Council of Legal Education have awarded a prize of £50 to **Mr. Satyendra Prasanna Sinha** (Lincoln's Inn) in Roman Law, Jurisprudence, Constitutional Law and Legal History.

The Council of Legal Education have awarded a prize of £50 to **Mr. Rastamji Dhanjibhoy Sethna** in Real and Personal Property Law. The two gentlemen above mentioned both obtained prizes in a previous year.

* **Mr. George Nundy** has passed the LL.B. Examination of the University of Dublin.

In the Previous Examination of the University of Cambridge held at the close of last term, **Mr. Ramdas Chubildas** (Christ's) passed in Part I., 1st Class, and in Part II., 2nd Class. **Mr. Lowji M. Wadia** in Part II., 1st Class, and in the Additional Subjects, 2nd Class. **Mr. Aziz Ahmed** in Part II., 2nd Class. **Mr. Abdool Vahid** (Christ's) in Part II., 1st Class. **Mr. J. B. Sathupathy** in Part I., 2nd Class. **Mr. Hameed Ullah** (Christ's) in Part II., 1st Class.

We regret to record the death, early in January, at Davos Platz, Switzerland, of **Mr. D. D. Cama**, of Bombay, who had resided for some time in England.

Also, on December 20th, of **Mirza Peer Bux**, from the N.W.P., who had lived in London for over thirty years.

Arrival.—**Mr. A. B. Master**, from Bombay.

We acknowledge with thanks the Report on the administration of the Baroda State, 1880-81, and the Report of the Director of Public Instruction in the Bombay Presidency, 1882-83.

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THE EDUCATION COMMISSION AND FEMALE
EDUCATION.

By special recommendation of the Government of India, the recent Education Commission have dealt carefully with the subject of Female Education, which is now widely recognised as of pressing importance in regard to general progress in India. The Commission have collected in their Report many useful facts with regard to the present state of education for girls, as to the great disproportion between the number of boys and girls under instruction, the educational efforts made during the last sixty years by Missionary Societies, and in the last thirty years by the Government, &c.,—and they detail the causes which operate tremendously against the advance of such education. Finally, they suggest the methods by which they consider those who desire practically to aid in this matter can most effectively work; among which methods, our readers will be interested to notice, are the very plans which have long

been advocated and which are carried out in practice by the National Indian Association.

We will briefly summarise the remarks of the Commission on the above points. Out of a female population of 99½ millions only about 127,000 are under instruction, that is, not one per cent. of girls of school age, while from among the male population of 103 millions, two millions and a half attend school, a proportion of over 16 per cent. of boys. It appears that female education is twice as much extended in Madras and Bombay as in Bengal; in the N.W. Provinces only one girl in 2,169 goes to school. In considering these figures, however, it must be borne in mind that the girls of higher class native families, especially among the Mahomedans, receive at home a degree of education, although it is no doubt ordinarily meagre. The Report dwells on the satisfactory evidence that exists of the abilities and intellectual capacity of Indian women, referring to the traditions of the past and to the many instances in the present of their successful conduct of affairs public and private, and of their powers of study. These proofs of capability would not have been forthcoming unless a training of the faculties of women in some form or other had been carried on. But unfortunately it is too true, as the Commission reports, that the social customs of India present enormous hindrances to the appropriating by girls of the benefits of a school course. In the higher ranks it is in many parts of India considered unsuitable that the daughters should attend school, and even where such objection is overcome, the fatal habit of early marriage withdraws the little pupils from school at nine years of age, or, except in rare cases, at eleven, in order that they may enter on the cares and duties of married life. Where however the schools are supplied with female teachers, which at present is comparatively

seldom, the parents sometimes consent to a school course of rather longer duration. Native public opinion cannot be said to have yet gone far in favour of education for women, but still it is encouraging to find that the tide is in many parts of India on the turn, and that though the motive which has operated so much in respect to boys—the securing for them a means of livelihood—cannot be said yet to apply to girls, still former prejudices are certainly giving way, and the English-educated class are generally impressed with the absolute connection between the improvement of education for women and the extension of true social progress.

With regard to the remedies proposed by the Commission for the present condition of things, they give the opinion that the improvement and multiplication of schools will by no means fully meet the difficulty. In order to gain the adhesion of public sentiment it is, they consider, indispensable that education should in some way be carried into the home, and the efforts of Missionary teachers in families willing to receive them is mentioned as having been valuable. They recommend that grants should be made by Government for the secular teaching given by Zānana agencies. And here the method employed by the National Indian Association—for supplying Home Teaching independently of religious instruction, providing in fact daily governesses for native families—comes in, and is mentioned approvingly by the Commission. Native gentlemen who are favourable to female education have frequently expressed their full sympathy with this plan. As long ago as 1871 the late Keshub Chunder Sen, in an Address delivered at Calcutta on the Improvement of Indian Women, spoke strongly of the need of secular teaching for the Zānana, believing, he said, that “moral and secular instruction, if imparted in a truthful and devout spirit, will tend not only to purify the minds of native boys and girls,

but also to reform the Indian household, and adorn it with all those charms and embellishments of a moral and spiritual character which are at present most needed." "It is to be hoped," he added, "that a body of competent female teachers—English and native—will be trained up, who will give liberal education in the strictest sense of the term, unsectarian liberal secular education, to Indian girls."

We trust that the encouragement thus decidedly afforded by the Commission to Home Teaching will stimulate support of this important work, already so successfully undertaken by the Madras Branch of the Association.—Again, the importance is referred to of providing for girls suitable books, in preparing which native ladies might help. This object has been attempted for several years on a small scale by the Bengal Branch in the publishing of Reading books, called the Mary Carpenter Series.—Scholarships for girls are also recommended by the Commission, to be granted in such a way as to extend, if possible, the school-going age. Here again the National Indian Association has exerted itself, and the results have definitely shown that the term of education can be lengthened by a judicious application of even small grants for scholarships. Members of this Association have thus the satisfaction of knowing that their labour has been and is in the direction which the Commission have advised the Government of India to support.

We are glad to find that the Commission urge the desirability of an increase in the number of Inspectresses instead of Inspectors, and the establishment of more Training Schools for female teachers. These two points seem to be of the greatest importance in order to extend the usefulness of girls' schools. They also recommend the application of larger funds to Female Education. We trust that the unwearied endeavours of the Commission to understand the feelings of

the people in regard to teaching for women and girls, and the thoughtful consideration which they have bestowed on the subject, will within a few years produce most beneficial and fruitful changes. We shall refer further next month to this valuable Report.

PUBLIC INSTRUCTION IN BOMBAY.

The Bombay Report on Public Instruction for 1882-83 shows that the number of schools and scholars is steadily advancing, there being an increase of 434 schools and 31,095 scholars over the previous year. The following table explains how this increase is distributed :—

	Institutions.		Scholars.	
	1881-82	1882-83	1881-82	1882-83
Arts Colleges	6	6	475	558
Law Class do.	1	1	136	171
Medical do.	1	1	283	343
Engineering do.	1	1	151	131
Agricultural Class do.	1	1	11	13
Forest do. do.	1	1	11	7
High Schools (boys)	50	53	6,054	6,602
Do. (girls)	6	8	78	99
Middle Schools (boys)	231	231	16,102	16,946
Do. (girls)	22	26	1,503	1,610
Primary Schools (boys)	5,012	5,396	312,771	338,407
Do. (girls)	326	359	19,917	23,586
Normal Schools	9	10	553	610
Medical Schools	3	3	143	151
Schools of Art	1	1	177	184
Technical Schools	8	10	519	444
* Drawing Classes	17	21	[714]	[928]
* Agricultural do. (High Schools) } Do. do. (Vernacular) }	8	9	[286]	[215]
Total	5,704	6,138	358,891	389,986

* The figures enclosed in brackets are counted under High and Middle Schools.

As however some of the pupils in boys' schools are girls and some of the pupils in girls' schools are boys, it is necessary to pick out this information from the tables appended to the Report. These show that there were three boys in middle schools and 58 in primary schools for girls, while, on the other hand, there were 55 girls in high schools, 265 in middle schools and 8,674 in primary schools for boys. The total number of girls in high, middle and primary schools was thus 33,228, against 22,989 last year.

The following table shows the results of the University examinations during the last two years :—

Examinations.	1881-82.		1882-83.	
	Examined.	Passed.	Examined.	Passed.
Master of Arts	8	3	14	6
{ Bachelor of Arts, old regulation	125	36	72	36
{ Second B.A., new do.	—	—	34	23
First B.A.	88	34	120	53
Previous Examination	278	71	263	101
Matriculation	1,374	388	1,600	572
Second B.Sc.	7	2	4	3
First B.Sc.	2	2	2	0
Bachelor of Laws	26	5	28	14
Medicine { L.M. and S.	22	14	31	15
{ First L.M. and S. ..	41	23	62	32
Engineering { L.C.E.	24	16	29	15
{ First L.C.E.	22	15	24	10

Except in Civil Engineering and the First B.Sc. Examination these figures are considerably in advance of last year. The change in the bye-laws under which students may matriculate at any age is said to be working well, and it is a remarkable circumstance that the youth who headed the matriculation list would under the old rules not have been allowed to appear. Out of nine girls who came up for the matriculation examination no less than seven passed, being two more than last year.

The following statistics of examinations in middle and primary schools indicate some falling off in the former and some improvement in the latter class of institutions :—

Examinations.	1881-82.		1882-83.	
	Examined.	Passed.	Examined.	Passed.
<i>Middle School—European and Eurasian Standard V. and Anglo-Vernacular Standard III.—</i>				
Boys	3,252	1,751	2,250	1,264
Girls	130	49	102	37
<i>Upper Primary—Vernacular Standard IV.—</i>				
Boys	18,127	7,946	21,046	9,968
Girls	503	230	638	331
<i>Lower Primary—Vernacular Standard II.—</i>				
Boys	43,650	21,932	49,316	26,263
Girls	1,933	890	2,205	1,132

The reports on the vernacular training colleges for male teachers show that a high standard is reached, and that good work is done in these institutions; but, as far as can be judged from the following abstract of the statistics of trained and untrained teachers in the vernacular schools, it does not appear that any real progress is being made in substituting certificated for uncertificated teachers. More training colleges seem needed for the work which has to be done:—

Masters.	1881-82.	1882-83.
Trained	1737	1717
Untrained... ..	2092	2315

The Training College for Women at Poona had 46 students on the rolls against 42, and three women who passed the seventh or highest vernacular standard were sent out as teachers. In the Ahmedabad Training College the attendance rose from 31 to 39, and eight women went out as teachers. Mrs. Mitchell, who has been at the head of the Poona College since 1870, and has been a successful labourer in the cause of female education, retired on a pension after the close of the year, and has been succeeded by Miss Collett, the Lady

Superintendent of the Ahmedabad College. A normal class for women has been established at Kolhapur under Miss Little, and ten women have been admitted after passing an examination corresponding with vernacular standard V.

The following table shows the results of the Art Certificate examinations instituted by Mr. Griffiths in 1879-80:—

Years.	1st Grade.		2nd Grade.		3rd Grade.	
	Presented.	Passed.	Presented.	Passed.	Presented.	Passed.
1879-80 ...	—	—	15	1	—	—
1880-81 ...	119	18	30	12	2	1
1881-82 ...	139	33	65	22	2	2
1882-83 ...	343	92	75	44	9	3

Nearly every zilla is now provided with a teacher of elementary drawing, and the number of pupils learning drawing has risen from 515 to 887. Twenty-five institutions of various kinds, including the three Schools of Art at Bombay, Rajaram and Rajkot, sent up 343 candidates for the first or lowest grade. Of the 75 candidates who came up for the next grade, 61 were students of the Elementary School, Painting Atelier, Sculpture Atelier and Wood Engraving Class of the Sir Jamsetji Jijibhoy School of Art, while the others were ex-students, drawing masters and students under private tuition. The candidates for the third or highest grade all belonged to the Sir J. J. School of Art, with the exception of one drawing master, who failed.

Five students of the Agricultural Class attached to the Poona College of Science passed the final examination, being the same number as last year. Dr. Cooke reports that this class is not as popular as it should be, "owing to the uncertainty which exists as to the employment of the men who have passed its final examination. The natural field for passed students of this class is the Revenue Department, in which their knowledge of scientific agriculture might be turned to some account, and in which Sir R. Temple, when establishing the class, intended that they should be employed. At present they can and often do obtain employment under district officers in the Revenue Department; but as they are

not permitted to appear either for the higher or lower standard revenue examinations, their prospects are *nil*, for they cannot rise in the department without passing the necessary test examination."

Five students of the Forest Class appeared for the final examination, and four who passed were appointed under the original guarantee to the Forest Department. That guarantee has however been withdrawn, and the result will, in Dr. Cooke's opinion, be fatal to the future success of the class.

The attendance in the eight Agricultural Classes attached to High Schools has fallen from 286 to 238, but the number who passed the agricultural examinations has risen.

Years.	1st Year Students.		2nd Year Students.	
	Sent up.	Passed.	Sent up.	Passed.
1881-82 ...	55	41	29	22
1882-83 ...	51	48	31	28

Most of the farms are improving, but complaints are made of the apathy of the High School students. Persuasion is required to get boys to join the agricultural classes, and some of them merely do so to escape learning a second language. Some of the vernacular agricultural classes are, however, in a promising condition.

The section of the Report devoted to the education of chiefs and minors again shows the persistent manner in which the orders of the Judges are evaded. In the central division out of 874 minors who have been ordered to attend schools, only 111 are doing so, and of these only three are learning English. The Rajkumar College at Rajkot, at which there are 35 young chiefs, of ages varying from 8 to 21, is progressing satisfactorily. The Thákór of Góndal, who was far in advance of the others, was about to finish his education by proceeding on a six months' tour to Europe. The Sardars' Class attached to the Rájáráam College at Kolhápúr has seven students on its rolls against ten last year. The Raja of Mudhot, after completing his education, was invested with the charge of his state in February. He commemorated his

installation by presenting an endowment of Rs. 15,000 to the College. His education has been solid, but Mr. Candy's remarks show that all the young chiefs who leave the College are not always equally fit to discharge the important duties which devolve on them. "It is but fair," he says, "that Sardars ought to be expected to know as much as is required for the First-Class Public Service Examination standard, though it is our desire to give them general education equal to that of graduates, and many of the younger Sardars, who have commenced their education here, will, we hope, attain to that degree of excellence. At present, there being no restriction, they pay less and less attention to their studies as they advance in years, for they know, that whether they study or not, when they come of age they are sure to be invested with their powers. If Mamlatdars and Sub-Judges are subject to the ordeal of a very crucial test before they are invested with civil or criminal powers, there is no reason why there should not be some milder test in the case of Sardars before they are invested with such responsible and extensive powers. As education is advancing among the people a time will soon come when they will not be satisfied with such uneducated rulers. If the chiefs want to enjoy their hereditary positions, they must show that they are qualified for them. I feel much impressed with the idea that if Government would require some examination as a test of general education to be passed by every chief before his state-powers would be granted to him, our work of educating them would be more easy, successful and satisfactory in every way."

Some important proceedings of Government regarding the extension of Local Self-Government are given in the appendix. The exact nature of the changes which may result from these resolutions in the existing educational system can scarcely yet be stated, but it is worthy of note that although during the year under review the receipts from Municipalities for educational purposes rose from Rs. 82,342 to Rs. 96,467, a large portion of this increase was given to English schools, and that, with the exception of the four Municipalities of Bombay, Surat, Ahmedabad and Sakkar, the town population shows little inclination to contribute to the support of primary education. The Report moreover reveals the fact that while schools within Municipal limits drew on the District Local Funds Budget for their support to the extent of Rs. 216,682,

the actual cess receipts from villages and towns within Municipal limits amounted to only Rs. 20,093. As this point is commented on in the order reviewing the Report it seems probable that the removal of an anomaly under which the rural population is made to pay for the education of the town population, is merely a question of time.

R. M. MACDONALD.

VERSES IN SANSKRIT ON THE LATE PANDIT SWAMĪ DAYĀNUND SARASWATĪ.

(The Founder of the Arya-Somaj, who died at the close of last year.)

Aho nitāntam hridayam vidūyate
Nis'amyā lokāntāramunnatāsīyam
Samprasthitam vedavidāmanuttamam
S'rimud Dayānund Sarasvatīm surim.

Dīpapaṇ-ktic'itabhūtale sati
Vyomni tārakaganaissamujjvale
S'okajālatimīrākule tu sa-
tyutsasarja sa s'arīrabandhanam.

Nis's'eshapītākḥilas'āstrasārah
Pūtāntaratnā nigamāgnijālāḥ
Jn'ānottamaikān'janalīptanetro
Brahmaikanidhyānavis'uddhaś'etāḥ.

Svakīyades'onnatimātralagnas
Svapnepi na prāptanijārthabuddhiḥ
Tyaktvā samastam tu kathannā kāryam
Gantum dyulokam sa maṇas'c'akāra.

Vijnāya tasyādbhutaś'aruvrittam
• Dīvauskaso jātakutūhalāḥ kim
Taddars'anāyātmaniketanaṁ ta-
majūhavan divyagunairupetam.

Kritayugoc'ita esha janah kila
 Nā c'iramarhati vastumāsau mayi
 Manasi san' kalitam kalineti kim
 Sa c'a hritokhilasādhumanorathaiḥ.

Gunānapekṣena nijaprabhuvām
 Kālena kim dars'ayitum hritassah
 Nridehabhākpṛāktanakarniayogāt
 Pūnah prapannah prakṛitiṁ nijānvā,

Sandehadolāmadhirūdhamēvam
 Mano na nis'etumalam madīyam
 C'itram nigūdham c'aritam vidhātur
 Vettum kṣainah ko vada mānushosti.

Dināni pūrvam katic'idya āsī
 Dasan'hritāsmānnayanotsavāya
 Smṛiteṣṣa panthānamitodhunā tat
 Katham vidhessyāllasitam prameyam.

Tātagehavasatirvinmānitā
 Sams'ritas'c'arama evac'ās'ramah
 Dharmatatvaparibodhane ratam
 Tena sōdhamapi durvac'o nṛinām.

Svanr vihāya muhuruc'c'hritam padam
 Vāridas's'rayati vāhinītatam
 Kevalam paralīte kṛitas'ramā
 Lāghavam na gaṇayanti sajjanāḥ.

Yah pākhaṇḍamataikakhaṇḍanarato vedākhyas'astṛis's'bhaiś'
 S'āstrāṇām balavadbalena śatataṁ samsevyamano yudhi
 Satpakṣah parishac'c'nalena vijayastāmbhān samāropayad
 Dikshvanyah purosho hi tena sadrus'c'labhyeta kutrādhunā.

Eka eva khalu padminīpati
 Reka eva divi śītadidhitih
 Eka eva c'a sa vēdavidbhūvi
 Dvītvamatka na kadā s'rutam mayā.

Syāt punastaranirakshigoc'aro
Dris'yate nabhasi c'andramāḥ punaḥ
Yāta esha tu sakritsadagranīr
Bobhavīti vishayo na netrayoh.

Indriyārthodbhavam jñānam
Sarvathā na pramātma kam
Tac'c'utassa mahātmātas
Smritāveva nidhiyatām.

Sanskrita bhārati yena
Vridhdim yāyādanāratam
Tāsyā nāmāmaram c'a syā—
Dityetadvyavasīyatām.

Rishayah kavayo nashtā
Vidvānsopi tathaivac'a
Sādhūnām maranātpas'c'ā—
Dabbidhānam tu jīvati.

Ko nāma s'rī Dayānundāt
Sādhīyān dris'yate janah
Ujjīvitārshavidyā ye—
Nāsmābhīrnirapekshitā.

Saivaishā nīyatām pushtim
Svakīyahitavridhaye
S'āstratatvāvabodhena
Yūnām sanskriyatām c'a dhīh.

Kaḥ padminīnām vada tigmadīdhitir
Dharmah parah kaḥ kavivāc'ī kassthitali
Kā kanthabhūṣṇa na yamādbibhethi kas
Svāmī Dayānund Sarasvatī Yamī.

[CLOSE TRANSLATION.]

Our hearts are extremely afflicted on learning that the great scholar, Dayānund Sarasvatī, possessed of noble thoughts, has departed for the next world.

The day on which he freed himself from the imprisonment of body the earth was illuminated by lights,* the sky was glittering with stars, but darkness in the shape of sorrow pervaded the hearts of the good.

Who can say why he who had drunk deep of the truth of philosophy, who had his soul purified by the four sacrificial fires in the form of the Vedas, his mental eye sparkling with beams of knowledge and heart sanctified by meditation upon the Brahma only, who devoted himself to nothing but the welfare of his country, who never harboured a selfish thought even in a dream, left unfinished all his work, and thought of going to the world of higher beings?

Was it that the Angels on high feeling as it were a sort of curiosity to see him, gifted as he was with marvellous powers and divine virtues, called him to their own abode?

Or did the Deity, representing this age, remove him from here, and with him the hopes of all good persons, thinking that he really belonged to the age of truth (Kṛitayuga) and not to the present one?

Or did the God of Death, regardless of merits and demerits alike, destroy him in order to show his own power, or was it that he (Svāmī) having had to assume a human body, owing to the deeds of his past life, has now resumed his original nature?

The mind wavering with doubt is not able to decide the point, for what mortal is there who can unravel the wonderful mystery of fate?

How can we trust fate when we see that he (Svāmī), who was the cause of unceasing delight to us some days ago, has now become a mere object of memory?

— He left his parental home, assumed from the very first the fourth stage of life, devoted himself to the propagation of the Vedic faith, and had to put up with the abuses and insults of ignorant people.

The cloud leaving his lofty position in the sky resorts to the low banks of a river; those who have at heart only the good of others are indifferent to their own humiliation.

Where can we find now another person like him who endeavoured to destroy all superstition by the sacred arms of the Vedas, was always accompanied in his march by the power-

* Referring to the day of Divali.

ful army of the Sūstrās, had truth for his right wing, and posted pillars of victory in all directions in the shape of religious associations ?

In the firmament we have only one lord of the lotus ; the other luminary whose rays are proverbially cool is one ; on earth, in like manner he alone was the person to comprehend the Vedas clearly ; I know no duality in the case of any of these three.

The sun becomes the object of vision daily, the moon makes his appearance night after night in the sky, but that leader of the good, once that he has gone, will appear no more.

Knowledge by perception is not always to be trusted, let us then bear in our mind him who is now beyond vision. Let us do something that would tend to promote Sanskrit learning and to perpetuate his name.

The sages, the poets and the scholars of the past have all been overpowered by death, but the name of the good survives them.

Where can we find a better man than Svāmī Dayanund who rivied the learning of olden sages long neglected by us ?

Let us develope that learning which he revived, and may the intellect of our youths be polished by the light of the Sūstrās.

What relation does the sun bear to the lotus ? *

Which is the chiefest of virtues ? †

What does poetry affect us with ? ‡

What is an ornament to the tongue ? §

And who does not fear death ? ||

* Svāmī—Lord. † Dayā—Mercy. ‡ Anund—Delight. § Sarasvatī—Learning. || Yami—A divine.

R E V I E W .*

ORIENTAL EXPERIENCES. A Selection of Essays and Addresses delivered on various occasions. By Sir RICHARD TEMPLE, Bart., G.C.S.I., &c., &c., late Governor of Bombay, Lieutenant Governor of Bengal and Finance Minister of India.

THIS book is dedicated by permission to H.R.H. the Princess of Wales, and is intended, the author tells us in his preface, to be a continuation of his two former works, *India in 1880* and *Men and Events of my Time in India*. The volume

comprises a collection of addresses and speeches delivered before societies or associations in Great Britain, and articles contributed by Sir Richard Temple to English magazines since his return to England in 1880. They all relate to one great subject, namely, the East; and in that sense are all connected together. Almost all of them, the author tells us, are the results of his own personal experience. Out of the twenty-one chapters in the book, eleven refer to Indian affairs, and to these, as being of especial interest to readers of this *Journal*, I shall principally confine my remarks.

In conformance with this plan, the first chapter to which I have to call the reader's attention is the sixth, entitled "Local Self-Government in British India," and which originally appeared as an article in the *Contemporary Review* for March, 1883. It excited a good deal of attention at the time, and since it was written the subject has been severely discussed, both in Parliament and in the public prints. Theoretically, Sir Richard Temple's arguments for local self-government seem entirely convincing—at least to those who have the welfare of Indian subjects at heart. Nothing is so enervating, nothing is more deteriorating, either to individuals or nations, than to have everything done *for* them, nothing *by* them. No education is of real value unless it creates and develops a capacity for self-help and self-reliance. It is not always easy to carry theory into practice, and whether the changes consequent upon such a doctrine are practicable, no one not possessing an intimate acquaintance with Indian affairs should pronounce an opinion. But it is pleasant to be able to state that one possessing the great and personal experience of Sir Richard Temple thinks the change quite practicable. To the objection—customary from minds of a certain order on occasions like this—that such a change as that proposed is undesirable because the people are unprepared, he replies, somewhat pithily,—"*The people are not likely to become prepared unless some steps are taken for preparation.*"

The whole of the seventh chapter, and portions of the two succeeding chapters, are devoted to pleading the cause of Christian missions in India. The readers of this *Journal* will probably agree with the present writer that too active interference from missionaries is to be deprecated, and that as a rule non-interference in religious belief is the wiser

policy. At the same time Sir Richard Temple pleads the cause he has at heart with such evident earnestness and sincerity that it is impossible to feel offended at what he has written.

The tenth chapter is devoted to the very important subject of "The Political Economy of the Indian Empire;" and it is satisfactory to be able to state that in the opinion of the author the finances of India are in a condition altogether sound.

"You hear of deficits, annual deficits, year after year," he says; "but these are technical, nominal deficits, and are hardly deficits at all, in the proper sense of the word. These merely arise because the sums spent by the Government upon the improvement of the country, upon canals and railways, are included in the ordinary finances. But in no other country in the world are such charges included in the ordinary finances on the contrary, they are excluded; and that being so, there is in India no deficit whatever; on the contrary, there is an exact equilibrium established between income and expenditure. . . . Then, you are told that we must add to that £150,000,000, which I mentioned as the Public Debt of India, the debt for the guaranteed railways. Well, add that, and it makes another £93,000,000. But what is the effect? The effect you will find to be, that upon the total of what I may call the debt thus consolidated, the interest would not be above two and a half per cent. upon the whole. I should like to know whether there is any other Government upon earth that is paying so little as two and a half per cent. on its National Debt."

This chapter contains also useful advice as to the most profitable trades and articles of commerce in India.

The eleventh chapter is devoted to the subject of Indian Forestry. The preservation of forests in India being, in the author's opinion, a matter of most vital importance, but one that has been unfortunately much neglected. Indeed, "a vast amount of mischief has been done which cannot be remedied for several generations." So that the natives, both of Great Britain and India, should be not without a certain self-reproach on learning that the father of Indian forestry is neither a Briton nor an Indian, but a Prussian, and that man is Dr. Brandis. Another man, Dr. Schlich, a countryman of Dr. Brandis, "is second only to him in the successful efforts he has made for Indian forest conservancy."

The twelfth chapter is devoted to a consideration of the monetary practice amongst the natives of India; it was originally delivered as an address before the Institute of Bankers, and is concluded in the following words:—

“I would recommend you to encourage, as much as in you lies, the improvement in India of the law of debtor and creditor, the extension of saving-banks, the permission for natives to subscribe even very small sums to state loans, on the model of the French Government, and after the model which virtually has been introduced by the present Postmaster-General, Mr. Fawcett. I would urge the extension of the system of money orders, whereby the natives may be induced to use the British Post Office and other public departments for remitting their money. Also I would recommend that the system of life assurance by the state should be instituted. This will not at all interfere with private insurance companies in India, who chiefly have business, either among Europeans or among Anglicised natives. Still, if the natives at large are to take to life insuring they will trust nothing short of the Government itself, and, considering the priceless benefit of the habit of thrift which would thus be introduced, I think it is one of those things which the State might fairly undertake. By urging these and other kindred measures you will not only produce a good monetary and financial effect, but you will also bind the natives by new ties to the British Government, and you will give them a substantial stake in the permanence and stability of British rule.”

The fourteenth chapter is entitled “Pan Islamism, or Political Muhammadanism;” and considering the great interest in Christian missions shown by the author in a previous chapter, the reader will be at once pleased and surprised to come across a passage like this:—

“After all the Muhammedans have always a vague fear that a foreign Government may interfere with their religion. . . . They imagine that education and other improvements will be turned into engines for moving the minds of youths away from the faith of the Propag. Now we must at all hazards communicate knowledge to them. Nevertheless we must let them see that no unfair advantage whatever is taken in respect to religion. Their faith will have every reasonable chance of holding its own or winning its way if it can. Despite all their fanaticism, the argument that their religion has never been interfered with, that every opportunity has been allowed to

them for maintaining their doctrines will always carry weight with their minds in our favour."

The sixteenth chapter entitled "Birthplace and Cradle of Mahratta Power," and the seventeenth, "Personal Traits of Mahratta Brahman Princes," are among the most interesting in the book. They deal with the romantic history of Sivaji, the founder of the Mahratta nation, and of his son Sambhaji, and other Mahratta princes. Very few novels could compare in interest with the adventures of the founder of Mahratta power.

The eighteenth chapter is entitled "The Temperance Movement among the British in India," and was originally delivered before the temperance association in Liverpool.

Taking "Oriental Experiences" as a whole, it is worthy of much praise. The maps and illustrations (all of them good) scattered throughout the book are thirty-six in number; and in addition to the large amount of information the volume contains, the style in which it is written is so bright and vivid, as to make it exceedingly pleasant reading.

CONSTANCE PLUMPTRE.

THE ANCIENT LITERATURE OF INDIA AND THE INNER LIFE OF THE HINDUS.

(The following stories illustrating sayings in ordinary use among the Hindus, are derived from the *Ramāyana* and the *Mahābhārata*. The article is in continuation of a series which we inserted in this *Journal* last year.)

PART IV.

"*Agastya Brata.*" A man entering an Agraharam, or village, which has a large number of Brahmanas living in it, and asking for some person, whom he considers important, but who is not well known in the place, may get a reply to this effect—"We do not know who the Agastya Brata is." The allusion might puzzle the stranger; but none the less is it interesting; for it refers to the brother of the great Brahma Rishi Agastya. When Rama, Latchmana and Seeta travelled towards the delightful region of Panchavati, or the Five Banians, the sages that directed their way said—"On the

road you first meet the hermitage of Agastya Brata, and then go to the hermitage of the great Agastya himself." As often as they spoke of the former, they described him as the *brother of Agastya* without giving his proper name. The three illustrious personages went to his hermitage and were welcomed with the reverence and hospitality due to their position and character. "After spending some time with him," says the great epic poet, "they left the hermitage of Agastya Brata and travelled southwards," thus omitting to give the name of the sage even in this last notice of him. Hence, any person whose importance consists in his relationship to some great man, without any special reference to his intrinsic merit, goes by the name Agastya Brata.

"*Ramabanam*." "How ran the man with the message?" asks a man, and the person addressed replies, "As fast as *Ramabanam*." The query and reply may be constantly met with in Hindu life. Here again the allusion is to the arrows of Rama, which are credited with wonderful speed and power by the great poet. Thus, while describing the death of Kumbha Karna, the monstrous brother of Ravana, the poet speaks of the arrow shot by Rama in these terms—"Then the hero took up from his quiver an arrow named *Indrastra*, which was bright as a sunbeam, potent as the mace of Brahma, the shaft of death and the force of destiny combined, imperturbable, keen, well-feathered and endowed with the velocity of the winds!"

"*Ramavauk*." When an inferior seeks a favour at the hands of a superior, which simply depends on the good-will of the latter, the former would say, "Sir, be so good as to consider my request and grant *Ramavauk*." *Ramavauk* literally means the word of Rama. The allusion is to the fact that Rama never retracted his word. The poet often says, "*Ramedwir Nabhibhashathé*," or "Rama never speaks a second word," meaning, when Rama had promised a thing, he never retracted or modified it; "for," says the poet, "Rama never told an untruth, nor ever will." Hence, the highest ideal of truthfulness and honesty is generally expressed by the compound term "*Ramavauk*."

"*Rama-Latchmanau*." When twins are born in a family, or when two brothers live in mutual love and esteem, they are almost invariably named *Rama-Latchmanau*. The practice is a recognition of the extraordinary ties of brotherly affection

and friendship which united the two great personages. A touching instance of this is furnished by a scene in the Ramayana. On the evening Rama, Latchmana and Seeta went to the banks of the Gunga, on their way to the Thandaka forest, Guha, an old friend of Rama, came to see him. After conversing with him for some time Rama and Seeta retired. Latchmana imposed on himself the duties of a sentinel and stood guarding them from a distance. Guha, who stayed with him, said, "Sire, you have not been accustomed to wake in the night and watch in this style. I shall be guarding you all if you would also go to bed." Latchmana replied, "While the heir-apparent to the throne of Ayodhya, with his consort sleeps on a pallet of straw under a tree in this wilderness, do you think I shall be able to sleep? O never!" When the charioteer that left them on the banks of the river, took leave of him, Latchmana said, "Sumantra, tell King Dasaratha that I do not regard him as my father—Rama is my brother, master, kinsman and parent!" Rama reciprocated these feelings with equal warmth and sincerity. In one of the battles in Lanka, Latchmana, being severely wounded, fell senseless on the ground. • The illustrious hero lamented the incident in these terms—"In every country it is easy to have relatives and friends; but, alas! in what country can be obtained a brother and counsellor like Latchmana?"

"The Ninth Ashtaka." This is a phrase commonly used in Agraharams, or localities where Brahmanas live. It means "abuse," but has a reference to the Veda itself. The Yajur Veda is divided into eight parts. If a benediction is to be pronounced, some passage in any of these parts is generally selected. But "systematic abuse" is nowhere to be found in them. So when a man goes to see a person on some unpleasant business and he sends him back after a volley of invective, the former generally says, "I went to him and he pronounced a benediction on me, by citing a passage from the Ninth Ashtaka!" Hence, this humorous expression, denoting an imaginary ninth part of the Veda, has been, in the dialect of the learned, synonymous with "abuse."

"Sent to see; but returned after burning." This is a saying current among the Telugu people of Southern India. Hanuman, one of the ministers of the Vanar King Sugreeva, who was a great ally of Rama, was sent along with others in the southern direction in search of Seeta, who had been

carried off by Ravana. The party reached the mountain of Mahendra, where the ocean presented itself to view. Hanuman left his companions behind and crossed to Lanka, where, after seeking long, he found the royal lady in the great garden of Asoka Vana. He introduced himself to her at a very critical moment and alleviated her grief as best as he could. She said, "Hanuman, no other but you could have accomplished the great feat of crossing the sea to Lanka: you must therefore achieve the other feat of bringing Rama and his allies to this place to destroy Ravana and his forces." Hanuman solemnly promised to do so, and, after taking leave of her, said to himself, "Well, I have taken all this trouble and come to Lanka. If I should return without seeing its king I shall have done my work but imperfectly. Again, the only means of introduction to his presence would be doing something to attract the attention of his followers. Now, this garden is a source of infinite delight to him: let me therefore lay it waste." With this resolve he broke down the trees and demolished a great many edifices in it. The keepers of the garden resisted him; but he laid them all in the dust. Then there was a series of contests, in which perished a great many of the followers of Ravana, including his eldest son Atchaka. After all Indragit, the ablest of his sons, seized the Vanar hero and conducted him to the presence of the King, who, after a long consultation with his minister, ordered that his tail should be burnt. Accordingly, the Ratchasas wound round his tail a great quantity of rags, and dipping it in oil set fire to it. Hanuman said to himself, "Now, I have a fair opportunity of burning the city. I shall not be true to myself if I fail to do so." Then he escaped from the Ratchasas, who guarded him "without winking," and went about setting fire to edifice after edifice, till he reached finally the palace of Ravana and demolished it also. Having accomplished this feat Hanuman returned to his friends on this side the ocean near Mount Mahendra, and finally reported the successful termination of his journey to Rama and Sugreeva. Hanuman, whose mission was simply to find out the locality where Seeta was, thus returned after burning it. Hence, when any person overdoes a bidding—generally giving more satisfaction to his master than he had reasonably expected, the Hindu would say, "He is indeed a clever messenger! He was sent to see, but returned after burning!"

“Markanda Ayus.” There was a sage named Mrikandu, who had no children for a long time. He and his wife prayed for issue. In answer to their prayers the celestials presented this alternative—“Would you have a stupid youth who would live long, or an intelligent youth who should die an early death?” The sage elected the latter. Accordingly, he had a son named Markanda, whose piety and wisdom, at an early age, astonished the sages of the locality. But his life was to terminate in his sixteenth year. So his parents “grieved more in proportion to his growth.” The youth ascertained the cause of their sorrow, and said to himself, “My parents lament the strange destiny that controls the period of my life. If possible it is my duty to prevent it.” So he entered on a course of rigid penance and meditation to propitiate the celestials and obtain an extension of his life. But the “wary watchman”—Death—was on the alert according to his wont. When the day arrived for Markanda to depart from this world, he approached him with his “noose and dart,” and strove to take him away. Just then Siva, in whose worship the pious youth was engaged at the time, appeared and struck down Death, finally conferring on Markanda eternal life. The story has given rise to the oft-repeated benediction—“May you live as long as Markanda!” It is, of course, an allegory representing the subservience of Death to the Almighty power of God, and the fact that he alone can grant eternal life and happiness to mortals. It has been dramatised in various forms, and to this day is one of the most popular plays in Southern India. During the festive seasons of the year, nothing attracts the attention of the populace so much as the representation of the triumph of Markanda over Death.

P. V. RAMASWAMI RAJU.

SOCIAL AND PHILANTHROPIC INSTITUTIONS IN THE WEST.

III.—A DISCHARGED PRISONERS' AID SOCIETY.

Among the many forms of active benevolence to which the late Miss Mary Carpenter gave effective support was an organised scheme for affording to discharged prisoners and convicts such means of returning to honest industry as their circumstances

might require, with such friendly supervision as might be likely to encourage reformation. With these ends in view a Society was formed in Bristol in the winter of 1872-3, which was certified under the Discharged Prisoners' Aid Societies' Act, and an agent appointed to carry on its work. The operations of the Society were at first limited to male prisoners only, but they were soon after extended to female prisoners, for which purpose a committee of ladies was formed, who have been for some years working energetically in this department. Their influences are chiefly brought to bear on short-term prisoners, but include also convicts, viz., those who have been convicted of serious crime, and who, having worked out their sentence, have returned to Bristol. The Society looks into the case, receives the released prisoner, gives him such aid as may be desirable, having in view always his separation from dangerous associates and his encouragement in a life of honest industry. The following details are taken from the *Western Daily Press*:—

The chief operations of the Society are, however, with that much larger class of persons who are committed to prison for lighter offences, but who on discharge are nevertheless often sorely in need of help. All prisoners confined beyond a certain time have the opportunity of earning a small sum in prison, payable to them on their release. This acts beneficially both as an encouragement to good conduct in the prison and the prevention of absolute destitution on release. By the regulations of the Prison Commissioners, Prisoners' Aid Societies very generally receive and administer these sums for the benefit of the prisoners who are encouraged to put themselves under the Society's influence, thus guarding against the temptation to spend such amounts in drink, and favouring the chances of a fair start for the prisoner by the provision of respectable lodgings and wholesome food, with necessary tools or means of work. But beyond the cases in which the Society thus becomes the administrator of prison funds, all prisoners from Bristol prison, whether entitled to receive money or not, can be referred to the Society by the chaplain or governor of the prison, either as recommended for aid or for inquiry into their circumstances. The needs of the discharged prisoner vary very greatly. There are the cases of fraud and embezzlement by men who have occupied respectable positions, very difficult to deal with, as the offenders have rendered themselves unfit for places of trust and are not often equal to hard manual labour; the cases of theft after a downward course of fast living; the still more common case of the man falling into habits of intemperance, losing a good situation, drifting into want, and at last becoming guilty of petty larceny for a night's lodging or bare subsistence; the very frequent

case of the idler who, strong and capable, nevertheless prefers the uncertain but well-paid jobs that he may pick up here and there to the steady week's labour for the moderate but certain wage, and whose generally idle habits make him an easy prey to intemperance and dishonesty; the cases of young men and lads, undisciplined and wayward, who find a charm in an easy sauntering life, and who, under bad influences, are easily led into some act of dishonesty or mischief. There are, again, the cases of women, in kind almost as numerous as those of the men; the wayward, unmanageable girl; the deceitful, peculating servant; the intemperate squanderer; the dissolute woman.

Such cases and many others come within the scope of the Society's operations, and need a treatment almost as various as their dispositions and offences. For some a restoration to friends is the obviously necessary step, though sometimes a difficult one; for others the provision of tools or a small stock-in-trade is required; for others removal to a distant place, or sometimes emigration to a foreign country when friends are able and willing to assist; for others (a very large number) some opening for their labour; for others, especially the young, the separation from bad surroundings and the discipline of a life at sea; and for many cases of women a place in a Home or House of Refuge. In these and many other ways the Society acts for the discharged prisoner, bearing always in mind these two as cardinal points to be aimed at—the separation of the prisoners from bad surroundings and their start in honest labour. Unless special circumstances seem to warrant special outlay, the assistance given to the prisoner is managed with a very small expenditure of means judiciously applied with personal superintendence and direction. Thus the average cost per case is remarkably small. In the most unfavourable years the expenditure, including emigration cases, has not averaged more than 16s. 4d., while in other years it has been as low as 6s. 4d. per head. Towards the money so expended upon the discharged prisoners public grants have since 1881 been received, limited to a moderate maximum in every case. For the remainder of the outlay and for the general working expenses, the Society depends on the annual subscriptions and donations of its members and friends.

Since its formation the cases of 1,171 men and 254 women have come under the influence of the Society, and the proportion of those who have done well is very large. Its work is a difficult one, but the results are such as amply to justify the wisdom of its founders, and to encourage its managers and supporters. Being for the benefit of offenders against society, such work does not perhaps command the ready sympathy which is accorded to deserving want, but this question suggests itself and demands

an answer:—Is it better that he or she who has offended against society should be thrown back by neglect or cold repression into a gloomy life of hopelessness and crime, or, after society's penalty is paid, that the better way should be practically pointed out and a new start given which may raise him or her into a self-respecting, law-abiding citizen, with healthful interests and widening hopes? This is the problem that this Society has set itself to solve.

A QUESTION OF ETIQUETTE.

“MR.” or “ESQUIRE”?

The distinction between “Mr.” or “Esquire” usually marks the estimation or tolerance in which the person addressed is held by the person addressing, and nowhere is this more especially the case than in India. In other countries, though the selection of either phrase is much subject to individual favour or fancy, there happen to be some broad rules receiving general assent and observance. But let no one infer from this that the term “Esquire” is the outward and visible sign universally implying the gentleman. Not at all. Throughout the civilised universe, by the unanimous consent of experience, it is held that one may be in any position which society, kings, money or men can make, and still not be a gentleman. Speaking of India though, where public education, public estimation and public acknowledgment have one source and can only flow from one fountain-head—the Government, to which everything is subject—anyone who can think and who cares to do so must feel that from this source something should emanate which would have the effect of authoritatively deciding the limits of the “Mr.” and the “Esquire.” Let it not be imagined for an instant that the matter is too paltry to justify such notice or action. I have mentioned already that the use of either term is an indication of the esteem or toleration in which the person addressed is held by the person addressing him. *Ergo*, it seems obviously urgent that Government should decide as to those classes of persons and particular individuals for whom its representatives, officers and servants must either show esteem or mere tolerance. A first-class mechanical engineer is “Esquire,” while a member of the same profession, but of a lower grade, who had acted for the first-class man in a Government appointment, and was appointed to act by the Governor General's agent, Central India, some time ago, was officially designated by the same Government agent as only a “Mr.” in an official notification. We may note that in the direction indicated, some Governments have already taken

action, and notably that of Madras, which during the presidency of the Duke of Buckingham declared that all persons in employ of Government drawing above a certain salary were to be termed "Esquires."

What is wanted, though, is a rule which shall not apply only to a certain class but to all classes, and particularly to natives of all denominations, whether private individuals or Government servants. That which really jars on the reason and one's feelings is the writing of the "Esquire" after the name of a head clerk, whose only pretension to superior nationality is based on his attire, and the withholding of it from a respectable native gentleman who may be a leader of his class, a wealthy merchant, or one gifted with exceptional talent and particularly respected. In the law courts, Government offices, and in many public offices and companies, any native of rank or respectability is often called a mere "Mr.," or only by name, as So-and-so, pure and simple. In America there are no levelling distinctions in society or among the public at large, but all are equally called "Mr." In England I am told that even servants and butlers are often called "Mr.," and if not so addressed the man would feel himself insulted and illused.

When anomalies in this respect proceed, in hundreds of instances, from officers who to a great extent represent in their persons the Government they serve, it is really time that Governments stepped in and instituted something authoritative; for it must be remembered that it is difficult, if not impossible, for the ordinary native to conceive otherwise than that a wrong, an indignity or a slight, offered by a representative of Power—be his individuality ever so small—comes direct from the Power itself.

NUSSERWANJEE S. GINWALLA.

THE MAHARAJA'S SCHOOLS AT MADRAS.

H.H. the Maharaja of Vizianagram on his late visit to Madras paid a visit to three of the five schools founded by his late father, which are now in the charge of the Madras Branch of the National Indian Association. Miss Eddes, Lady Superintendent of the Schools, writes as follows of the visit:—

"Mrs. Carmichael and Mrs. Grigg came with the Maharaja to visit our Schools. You can imagine how pleased I was, as he has never done so before. They came to the Mylapore, Tripli-

cone and Black Town Schools. We had only a few hours' notice, so were unable to decorate and prepare much, but Mr. Viziarungum's kind thought provided us with garlands and flowers, and I was surprised to see how promptly the teachers rose to the occasion. Mylapore was prettily decorated with drapery and palms. Triplicane Street was festive with flags and wreaths. Some gorgeous chairs were borrowed from I can't tell where, and matting and red cloth were laid down. I could tell from the Maharaja's remarks that he was really interested. I was sorry not to show more needlework, but a considerable parcel of children's clothes made for friends had been despatched to Bangalore a few days ago. Still Mrs. Carmichael and Mrs. Grigg said the work was both better done and much cleaner. The girls sang badly, but that is a subject with which I have been quite unable to cope at present, the language being the obstacle, and the ideas of time so different. The Maharaja gave a holiday and Rs. 100 for sweets for the children."

These schools have been lately inspected by Mrs. Brander, and she found them improved.

The Maharaja also visited the Government Female Normal School, where he was much interested in some Telugu notes of lessons and in the Kindergarten occupations, admiring much the "printing" and the "paper folding."

THE LATE KESHUB CHUNDER SEN.

In our last *Journal* we briefly recorded the death, on the 8th of January last, of Babu Keshub Chunder Sen. But we feel that some further notice is due to the memory of a man who, if he was not as one of his eulogists declares "perhaps the greatest man in India at the present moment," has for many years exercised a most powerful influence on native society, in its moral, social and religious aspects, an influence that will not cease with his death.

Keshub Chunder Sen has been called away in the prime of his life and the full vigour of his mental powers. He was only just over forty-five years of age, a man of powerful and commanding presence, of pure life, temperate even to asceticism, and to all human probability with a long career of usefulness before him. But we now learn that he first felt the hand of disease upon him during the anniversary season of 1882, and then had a prevision that his days were numbered; and the state of

feverish activity in which he thenceforward lived, as one who felt he had much work to do and very little time in which to accomplish it, no doubt hastened the sad end.

A few particulars as to the early years of this great reformer, gathered from the Brahmo organ, *The Liberal*, will not, we are sure, be uninteresting to our readers. He was the second son of Babu Peary Mohun Sen, Dewan of the Calcutta Mint, a man of good family, whose house is described as "the stronghold of Hindu orthodoxy," and at the same time the centre of that education and enlightenment which had just been inaugurated under the auspices of a galaxy of distinguished men, of whom Ram Comul Sen, Keshub's grandfather, was one. Peary Mohun, the father, is said to have been "distinguished for two special gifts; he was the most handsome, as he was the kindest hearted member of his house; his benevolence was as unstinted as it was unostentatious." Keshub lost his father when he was ten years old. His mother is still living, and to her he was ever an affectionate and dutiful son. His education seems to have been a careful one, and although deficient in mathematics, a family failing, he was an ardent student in history, logic, psychology and zoology. His favourite poets were Shakespeare, Milton and Young, and he also read Bacon's Essays very carefully. It is told of him that, as a boy, "he was never satisfied without communicating all he had learnt to others. He would hold classes himself, and was always imparting knowledge to the female members of his family." In the year 1855, when he was only seventeen years old, he established an evening school for the benefit of working men's children, as well as for the middle classes. It was carried on with great efficiency up to the year 1859, when works of a more important nature were undertaken, and the institution came to an end. In 1857 he established a religious society called the "Goodwill Fraternity," which held weekly meetings at his house; and also the "British India Society, for the cultivation of literature and science." The meetings of the latter were held at the Hindu School Theatre, and the late Mr. Woodrow and the Rev. Mr. Dalf took great interest in the movement. It was at the meetings of the former society that he first practised public speaking, in which in after years he attained to such unusual power.

Keshub Chunder had always shown great taste for the drama, and his first attempt, in 1857, was the representation of *Hamlet* on the stage at his native village, Babu Protap Chunder Mozumdar acting as "Laertes." In 1858-59 his mind was occupied with another dramatic effort. These were the days of the widow marriage controversy, and an excellent drama on the subject having been written by Babu Umesh Chandra Mitra, of

Bhowanipur, it was resolved to bring it out on the stage. Babu Keshub Chunder was the manager, and the performance was a great success.

During these years of intellectual activity his mind appears to have been constantly exercised in religious matters. He read much, especially in the Bible; and we are told that "he resorted to devices for the conversion of the world which bespoke his boyish fervour and dreaminess." About this time the period of his life arrived when in the ordinary course he would be initiated into the mysteries of Hinduism. When, however, he was asked to prepare himself for initiation, he met the proposal by a distinct refusal. The anger of his friends knew no bounds; persecution failed to move him, and at last a friend introduced him to Babu Debendra Nath Tagore, the Minister of the Brahmo Somaj, and from thence began that friendship which was to endure till death.

In 1859 Keshub established "The Brahmo School," under the auspices and patronage of the venerable Babu Debendra Nath Tagore. At this school two lectures were given every week, one in Bengali by the Chief Minister, and the other in English by Babu Keshub Chunder Sen. This school was the nucleus of the Mission Office and the Brahmo Somaj of India.

At this time his friends "tried to divert him from his headstrong course by finding for him employment in a public office." At the close of the year he accepted a clerkship in the Bank of Bengal. During the ensuing year all his spare time was devoted to writing a series of English tracts and other works on the principles of the Brahmo Somaj, and to lectures and controversy on the subject. Towards the close of the year he took a trip to Ceylon in the company of Babu Debendra Nath Tagore. In the following year he found the bondage of his situation too great for endurance, and he tendered his resignation, saying that he intended to lead the life of a missionary.

Thus, being freed from secular work, his whole soul became devoted to the work of the Brahmo Somaj. In 1861 a meeting of the Adi Brahmo Somaj was held to consider the subject of an improved plan of national education; and in 1862 the Calcutta College was established. This scheme, however, fell through. During this time the intimacy and friendship between the venerable Minister of the Brahmo Somaj and Keshub Chunder had increased and strengthened, and at the Minister's request Babu Keshub Chunder was associated with him in the ministry.

The year 1862 "was passed in trials and troubles and vexation of spirit." He suffered from a painful malady, which was aggravated by family misunderstandings arising out of his religious opinions. Happily, through medical skill, he recovered

his health, and at the close of the year his position in the family house was strengthened by his coming into possession of the property left him by his father. We have already noticed his refusal to be initiated into the mysteries of Hinduism. In January, 1863, was celebrated the birth ceremony of his first-born son, and this again gave him the opportunity of rejecting the usual Hindu rites; and, in spite of family opposition, the first Brahmo ceremony was held in the family house. It is interesting to read that on this occasion, when the whole family, male and female, young and old, left the house, his mother, a most devout Hindu lady, remained, holding that no religious or caste considerations should stand in the way of maternal affection.

From this period must be dated Keshub Chunder Sen's influence in the Brahmo Somaj. For a short time he engaged in public controversy, and ably defended his position; but he soon left controversy for the more congenial work of building up the faith and strengthening the character of the community who had accepted him as a leader.

In 1864 he undertook an extensive missionary tour to Madras, Bombay, and the principal cities in the North-West. In the following year occurred the schism which led to the establishment of the Brahmo Somaj of India, with Keshub Chunder Sen as its head.

It is not our purpose to describe the progress and development of this great religious movement, or to trace the steps by which Keshub Chunder Sen gradually ascended to the position of the "Apostle of the New Dispensation." Throughout, his career has been marked by remarkable intellectual and spiritual activity, by earnest strivings after reforms in the physical, moral and spiritual condition of his disciples, and by many attempts at improvement in the educational and social condition of his countrymen and countrywomen. Of the shortcomings in his practice which led to the secession of a considerable number of his followers, and to the formation of the Sadharan Brahmo Somaj, it is not necessary for us to speak. He was too visionary to be practical, and became increasingly so in later years.

After all, it is the intellectual, the moral, the spiritual power of the man which we are compelled to admire. "He will be remembered," says one writer, "not so much for the merits of his teachings as for the impulse he communicated to the religious and moral thought of his countrymen."

J. B. K.

SHORNALATA: A TALE OF HINDU LIFE.

BY TARAK NATH GANGULI.

*Translated for this Journal by Mrs. J. B. KNIGHT.**(Continued from page 80.)**(All rights in this translation remain with the author of the tale.)*

[For the assistance of the reader the names of the principal characters in the following chapters are subjoined.]

Sasibhusan, the elder brother.

Pramada, his wife.

Bipin, their son.

Kamini, their daughter.

Bidhubhusan, the younger brother.

Sarala, his wife.

Gopal, their son.

Shyama, the female servant.

Thakurun Didi, a widow.

Nilkamal, a strolling fiddler.

Bipradas Chakravarti, a rich resident of Burdwan.

Shornalata, his daughter.

Hem Chandra, his son.

Gudadhar, brother of Pramada.

CHAPTER XXX.

GOPAL AND HEM CHANDRA.

Hem Chandra's dwelling was in Bakultolah Street, Calcutta. It was a two-storied house, but the upper story consisted of one room only, Hem Chandra's sleeping chamber. The Boitakhana fronted the street on the lower floor. In it he pursued his studies. In a house a little to the south of Hem Chandra's Gopal lived, he attended Dr. Duff's school. In going thither he had to pass Hem Chandra's Boitakhana, and therefore he served as a clock to Hem, who on seeing him knew it was time to go.

One evening as Gopal was returning from school there came on a drizzling rain, he had no umbrella, so he put his school books on his slate, and reversing the pile so that the slate should protect the books, placed it on his head. As he approached Hem Chandra's house the rain came down in force, and he sought refuge in Hem's doorway. Hem Chandra, who had come in a little earlier, was anxious to know Gopal, but had not hitherto taken any steps to become acquainted with him; now he

invited him to come in and take a seat upon his *taktaposh*. Gopal excused himself. Hem pressed him, saying, "The rain will not cease yet, how long will you stand here?" Gopal went in and took his seat at the edge of the *taktaposh*, keeping his feet on the ground. Hem urged him to place himself on the *taktaposh*, but Gopal declined, saying, "My shoes are torn and my legs muddy, if I sit on the *taktaposh* I shall spoil it."

Hem Chandra called a servant to wash the feet of Gopal, who then in much embarrassment took his seat upon the *taktaposh*. Hem Chandra took his hand and pulled him over amongst the pillows. Presently a servant brought some sweetmeats. Hem took the dish, and offering it to Gopal invited him to partake. Gopal was overwhelmed by Hem's attention, and with downcast face declined, saying, "I am not accustomed to eat at this time." Hem put some of the sweetmeats into Gopal's hand.

The storm increased, the street before the house was flooded, traffic was stopped. Gopal exclaimed, "The rain will not cease and evening is at hand, I must go."

Hem: What do you say, sir? that you will go in this storm?

Gopal: I want something at home. I must go.

Hem: What is your need?

Not liking to tell the truth, Gopal said, "My clothes are wet, if I do not change them I shall be ill."

Hem said, "Will you not change here?" and bid a servant bring dry clothes.

Ashamed, Gopal replied, "No, sir, my need for change is not so pressing; there are other reasons why I must go home." Touching Gopal's clothes Hem found them to be extremely wet, and exclaimed, "You have no need to change your clothes? when then would it be necessary?" But Gopal resisted and strove to go. Hem forced him to sit down, saying, "I will not let you go now."

Gopal: Sir, I have long wished to know you. I am unable to buy books, and have wished to ask you to lend me one or two. I am delighted to have made your acquaintance in this way, I do not wish to go, but there is special need that I should. I must go.

Hem: What need can there be?

Gopal: As you are so kind to me it would be ungrateful not to answer. I serve as cook and for wages receive my food.

* *Taktaposh*, a platform on four legs, standing fifteen inches above the floor, on which is spread a thin soft mattress, covered by a white cloth, and having on it a number of round pillows. Every Boitakhana is provided with a *taktaposh* in place of a couch or chairs. In using it the sitter rests the whole of his body on the *taktaposh*.

As he spoke his eyes were cast on the ground. Hem Chandra grieved at Gopal's distress turned the subject, saying, "If you wished to speak to me why have you not done so?"

Gopal: You are a great man, and I did not know if you would, so I was afraid. To-day I was driven in here by the rain.

Hem: How am I a great man? I do not think myself so. There may be a difference of an inch between us.

Gopal (smiling): I did not speak of that sort of greatness.

Hem: Well let me see you try these clothes on.

What could Gopal do? He put on the clothes and rolled up his own to take away, but Hem would not permit it, he said, "Leave your clothes and books here, to-morrow when you go to school you can take them." Then he gave him an umbrella, and sent a servant on in front bearing a lantern.

In the house where Gopal lived there was a boy of his own age named Kanai, he was the eldest son of the master of the house. When he saw Gopal enter, he said, "It is something to see Gopal Babu come in, he is such a gentleman, he can't walk without a lantern."

Gopal: I am in fault, Kanai Babu. I could not come because of the rain. Please not to speak so loud else the master will hear.

Kanai: What difference is there between the master and me? he does know about it.

At the sound of Kanai's words the Babu knew that Gopal had come in. He called out, "Why is there all this fuss about a Brahmin servant? Because it rains are we not to eat? I don't care to keep such a grand servant. From to-morrow let him find another service."

Gopal went into the cook-room without replying. He found Shyama preparing the food. At sight of Gopal she exclaimed, "Where have you been? they are making such a fuss." Tears were streaming from her eyes.

Gopal: Didi, that Babu of whom I talk every day, in whose house there are so many books, made me come in because of the rain, gave me something to eat, and these clothes to put on; he would not let me go, and when at last I persuaded him he sent a servant with a lantern. He is as gentle as he looks.

Shyama (smiling): May he live long! may he have as many years as there are hairs on my head!

Gopal: Didi, do you know his name?

Shyama: What name?

Gopal: I have long wanted to know his name, but in the first place, he is a rich man; and secondly, he is older than I, so I did not like to ask him. I opened a book, then I thought it

might belong to some one else, so I opened others, they all contained the same name, Hem Chandra; a good name, is it not, Didi?

Shyama: Yes, but what does a name matter? with a good disposition an evil name would be good.

Gopal: Didi, if you should see him you will know at once what a gentleman he is. He told me to go and take a book whenever I wanted one.

Shyama: You must show him to me one day. Is there any family in his house?

Gopal: No.

A few minutes later Gopal, who was cooking said, "Didi, put a little oil in the pan."

Shyama: There is no more oil.

Gopal: Is there none of ours?

Shyama: A little, but if you use that how will you see to study?

Gopal: To-day I am late with the dinner, if in addition to that there is not sufficient oil in the food. there will be a great fuss. I must not study to-day.

Gopal was accustomed to buy oil for study from Shyama's wages, and sometimes he had to use some of it for cooking, otherwise the mistress of the house declared there had been theft. Having finished the cooking and placed the food in dishes, Gopal served his master, his mistress, Kanai Babu and the little ones. Then before going to attend to Shyama's food and his own, he asked if the family required anything else.

The master of the house exclaimed angrily, "One of these days you will be calling yourself the Nawab Suraj u Dawla! Can you not wait? this won't do in my service."

Kanai Babu's face no longer wore a smile. Gopal remained in attendance.

Kanai: Suraj u Dawla! is there any more fish?

In order to put the family in good honour Gopal had prepared all the good things there were in the house, so he said, "There is no more fish."

Mistress: What! you have used four pice* worth of fish?

Gopal: I have brought it all to table.

Kanai: Very well, let me see the vegetables.

Gopal fetched what he had put aside for Shyama's supper and his own, and showed it to Kanai Babu, who said, "You have kept some down stairs." Gopal answered, "Then keep me here, and when you have finished eating go down with me and search."

* Four pice is equal to about three-halfpence.

Kanai (angrily): Your words are as big as your looks.

Gopal made no reply. When the meal was over, he went below, and said, "Eat your supper, Didi, I shall not eat."

Shyama: Why won't you eat?

Gopal was greatly upset by the taunts of the family, but he said only, "I had something to eat at Hem Chandra Babu's house, and am not hungry."

Shyama knew well enough why Gopal could not eat. She also went supperless to bed.

CHAPTER XXXI.

SHYAMA'S OPINION.

When Hem Chandra had taken leave of Gopal he called to him Ram Kumar, a servant of long standing, who had been with him from his birth, had reared him to manhood, felt for him the affection of a father, and regarded him as his lord. In Calcutta Ram Kumar was as a guardian to Hem Chandra, not at all as a servant. In general youths do not like old family servants, since such retainers, while cherishing them fondly, accord them no obedience, working at their own pleasure. But Ram Kumar was old, no one ever demanded service from him, therefore there was no cause of displeasure.

At the call of Hem, Ram Kumar came and took a seat beside the young man, who said, "Did you see that boy who was here?"

Ram: Yes, I saw him.

Hem: What did you think of him?

Ram: He was very well to look at, good, gentle, peaceable; but how can I tell his inner disposition?

Hem (smiling): You are not ready to take any one on trust.

Ram: When you are my age you will be difficult to please, but I am not censuring him. What is his name?

Hem: I did not ask his name, but he is well educated; and how gentle, and refined he is in speech.

Thus saying Hem looked into the face of Ram Kumar to guess his thoughts, but Ram did not speak. Hem continued, "The boy is in great trouble. He is cook in some house, and attends school in the day. I don't think from his look that he can be the son of poor people, his hands are so soft. I think he must have become poor by a sudden event."

Ram said, with a dejected face, "It may be." The answer was not very satisfactory to Hem. Since he had learned Gopal's condition, Hem had formed a wish to bring Gopal to live with him. But he wanted Ram Kumar to make the proposal, so his

reticence was vexatious. After a while Hem resumed, "If we suddenly became poor, what would happen? how would it be?"

Ram said, gravely, "Ma Kali avert that evil from you! but if you are well taught, what need have you of anxiety about money?"

Still Ram Kumar came not into the desired path.

Hem: But suppose we became poor before my education was completed, then I also should have to cook in some house.

Ram: No, no; you should not speak of such things.

At this moment the cook announced that supper was ready. Hem, with discontented face, went to his meal, and after it to bed. When Ram Kumar had finished he also went upstairs, he slept in the same room as Hem Babu. While eating spices Hem said, "Ram Kumar, we have eaten and we are resting, but I fancy that lad is now engaged in cooking."

Ram: Is the fate of all equal? if it were, the world could not go on. All would be masters, it would not be possible to get a servant.

At last Hem was forced to bring out the thought in his mind, he said, "I am much grieved about that boy, I should like to bring him to live here, then he would be free from trouble. We could easily give him food."

Whatever Hem Chandra had wished since his birth had been granted, especially since the death of his mother, no one had contradicted him. Ram Kumar answered, "Bring him here if you wish it."

Hem: Will my father object?

Ram: Has he ever objected, that he should object now? will it trouble him to find the boy in food? Hundreds of people are, by the blessing of Durga, fed in your house, will he be angry because you want to feed one lad?

Hem: Then I will write to him, and to-morrow I will bring the boy here.

Ram: It is of no consequence whether you write or not.

Hem, greatly delighted at Ram's words, composed himself to sleep, but suddenly starting up and lighting a lamp he wrote his letter. At dawn he rose and went to the Boitakhana, where he sat turning over his books, while he sent a servant to fetch Gopal. Gopal was busy with the morning cooking; he sent word that on his way to school he would call on the Babu.

Getting through the work more quickly than on other days, Gopal served his employers, and hastily swallowing a little food himself, set forth carrying Hem Babu's clothes carefully folded in paper. He lingered on his road full of embarrassment; when he came within sight, Hem came out quickly, drew him in and seated him on the taktaposh. Gopal gently placed the garments

on the cushions. Hem said, "What is this? why have you brought them?"

Gopal: When you sent your servant the clothes were not quite dry, I could not send them.

Hem (ashamed): I did not send Hira for the clothes, I sent him to call you.

Gopal made no reply. Hem went on, "I came to a resolution last night. I should like to tell you about it, but am rather afraid."

"It is a kindness in you to tell me your thoughts, what is there to fear?"

"Nevertheless I am afraid, lest you may not like it."

"There is nothing I could dislike, except that you should address me so formally. I am a Brahmin cook. To address me in these polite terms covers me with shame. What would people think?"

Hem, laughing heartily, said, "How am I to address you?"

"Call me by my name."

"Then you must attend to something on my behalf."

"What is it?"

Hem began to speak, but could not for laughing. The servant brought the hukā, to which Hem applied himself, thinking how he should introduce the subject he had in mind. After some thought he passed the hukā to *Gopal*, saying, "Smoke a little, sir." *Gopal* taking the hukā placed it on its stand.

Hem: Why, you will not even smoke! if you did not wish to do so why take it? I could have put it down.

An embarrassed pause ensued. *Gopal* looked towards the bookcase. Hem, seizing the opportunity, said, "You spoke of borrowing some books, but will not that be inconvenient? Some day I may want a book that you have."

Gopal: I should not think of taking any books that you require; if there are any you are not using that you can lend me it will be a great help.

Hem: I was not thinking of that, but rather how convenient it would be if we lived together.

Gopal: You have already Brahmin servants.

Hem: I don't want you as a cook. My wish is that we should live just alike.

Gopal remained silent with his eyes cast down. Hem also refrained from speech for awhile, and then said, "What do you say to my proposal?"

Gopal answered thickly, "Sir, I am not alone, I have a relative. We live together."

Astonished, Hem asked, "What relation?"

Gopal, with moistened eyes, replied, "Our condition was not

always what it is now. My mother had a servant named Shyama. She has brought me up. I owe to Shyama a thousand times more than one owes to a mother. At one time when we were very badly off Shyama spent the whole of her savings to keep us alive. When my mother was dying she entrusted Shyama to my care. Since then wherever I have gone we have kept together. Shyama would not live three days if she did not see me."

At Gopal's words the tears came into Hem's eyes. At this moment Ram Kumar came into the Boitakhana. Hem said, "Ram Kumar, this is he of whom I spoke." Ram Kumar said, "When will the Babu come to live here?" Hem gave the history of Shyama, when Ram said, "That will do very well. You were saying we needed a female servant. If Shyama can do a little household work it will not be necessary to engage any one else."

Gopal: How can I get away from there?

Hem: Are they so very fond of you?

Gopal: Who does care for his servants, Mahashoi? How much I was scolded yesterday because you did not suffer me to go in good time. Besides——"

Hem: What more?

Gopal: Nay, sir, I will not complain of those whose rice I eat.

Hem: Well, let that go. What is to prevent your coming at once?

Gopal: I cannot answer until I have spoken to Didi.

Hem: When will you speak to her?

Gopal: This evening when I return from school.

Accordingly, Gopal that night when he had set the cooking agoing related the whole to Shyama, whose tears flowed as she listened. She said, "We shall not suffer in going to Hem Babu's house, but what are the other people like? if they slight us how will that be? Here though you are but a servant no one knows anything about us. But there, you have told your history, if the servants should be contemptuous how will you bear it?"

Gopal: Didi, he spoke to me in such a manner that I could not withhold anything from him.

Shyama: I am not blaming you. What do you wish to do?

Gopal: I should like to go there, but if you will not neither will I. I will never do anything to cause distress to you.

Shyama: Then I also wish to go, but we must give these people notice, if we went off to-morrow what would they do?

Gopal was delighted at Shyama's consent. He ran off when the cooking was finished to tell Hem, who was equally pleased.

(To be continued.)

SELF-HELP IN EAST BENGAL.

Year by year we notice the Reports sent to us of educational work done in various centres of East Bengal; but the dry paragraphs, bristling with foreign names and with figures, are very unattractive to the eye, and give little idea to the English reader of the strenuous efforts now being made by the young men who come up from that part of India to study in the Calcutta Colleges. In these efforts they are aided by older men from the same districts, the students of a former generation, whose professions keep them in the metropolis, but whose hearts turn constantly to the spot of their birth, where many of their relations still are, with an ever strengthening desire for the social progress of the community so dear to them.

Conscious for the most part that their lives will be spent away from the family roof-tree, these young men do not wait till their scholastic career is closed before devoting time and energy to work not usually taken up till a much later period of life, but while still pursuing their studies they form themselves into societies, under the presidency of their older and more experienced friends, to promote the social, maternal and educational interests of their various districts. They have no money, but they have men willing to spend the whole or a part of their vacations in itinerating from village to village, lecturing upon the advantages of education to women and the best way of giving it, upon temperance and the rules of health, endeavouring to stir up the residents to self-help.

The three Reports lying before us indicate great activity in all these departments. The schools that exist are visited and encouraged, and stimulus given to the foundation of new ones. Home teaching for ladies is carried on by correspondence, and an annual curriculum appointed for their use. Examinations are held and prizes awarded.

The Vikrampur United Society, the oldest of the three, in its fourth Report enumerates Female Education, Preservation of Health and Temperance as its objects. Tracts have been distributed and addresses delivered on the two latter subjects, but funds are needed to do this efficiently. The work of Female Education has been carried on steadily: 311 ladies appeared at the examination out of 465 who had applied from about 73 villages; 280 passed, of whom 149 were married, 125 unmarried, and 6 widows. Twenty-four girls' schools were affiliated to the society during the year, of which twelve receive aid. "

The Faridpur Friendly Society has done much active work in promoting the digging of wells, the construction of roads and waterways in the surrounding villages, in establishing schools and aiding those already in existence. Little is actually effected, since the people are not easily moved to their own good, but the limited success makes the work of stimulation even more arduous. In the Home Education there is yearly progress, as is shown by the figures. In the first year 198 pupils were examined, of whom 127 passed. In the second year 204 passed out of 275, and in the past year 270 passed out of 407. It is also observed that the more advanced classes are increasing in number. Endeavours are made with some success to establish local Societies in connection with the head society at Calcutta.

The Mymensing United Society has existed but one year, and is still mainly an examining body. The examination came off in May, when of 579 Candidates only 388 actually appeared at the examination, of whom 363 passed. Some schools have been aided and prizes distributed. This society has branch institutions in Dacca, Mymensing and Sherpur.

All these Societies sent delegates to the Education Commission, and submitted memorials containing suggestions for the improvement of education in these districts.

MEDICAL WOMEN FOR INDIA.

At the Convocation of the Bombay University, held Jan. 15, H.E. the Governor, Chancellor of the University, referred in the following encouraging terms to the recent opening of Examinations of that University to women, which event bears strongly on the question of women's medical training:—It is, indeed, to me a matter for congratulation that the most important step has been taken of admitting women to our public examinations. There are many things yet to be done before they take the full benefits of this University. For example, they cannot, without proceedings being taken by Government, be admitted to all the rights of our Colleges, and there is no doubt that various matters will have to be considered before this is done. I do not think that the warmest advocates of female education can regret that one step should be taken at a time, and that the ladies, who, I trust, will present themselves in no small numbers, will show their capacity for the University Examinations before the degrees are placed at their disposal, or provision is made for them in the

Colleges. For myself, I can see no ground of principle why women should be excluded from all the educational advantages which are extended to men. I will not insult the female sex by wishing that they should be placed in all respects on an equality with men. They have their career, and a very high career, of duty which has always been entirely distinct from ours. But their intellects are as acute, their power, of assimilating knowledge as great, and the means of usefulness open to them by the acquisition of knowledge as ample as those of men. In all countries the education and the development of the female character must rest with female teachers. It may be that instruction in arts and sciences can best be imparted by men. But the formation of the character of the pupil, the disciplining of her life must always rest with female teachers. And how can female teachers be qualified to a due extent, unless they have had the utmost educational advantages open to them? I cannot, therefore, see for myself why the benefit of the Universities should not be extended to women. But in this country there are peculiar reasons in favour of this view, because until society greatly changes we cannot hope, or if we do hope, we cannot expect, that women, except in their youngest years, can be present at a mixed place of education; and we must see that the instruction imparted to them after their years of childhood must be derived, if at all, from female teachers. I say, therefore, that in this country it is peculiarly desirable that female education should be carried on to the utmost extents, and that no advantages afforded by this University should be denied to women."

Miss Edith Pechey, M.D., has been gazetted as Honorary Physician of the Pestonjee Hormusjee Cama Hospital for Women and Children.

We understand that Mr. P. H. Cama has increased his munificent gift to Rs. 1,64,000, in addition to the sum of Rs. 25,000 for scholarships.

The Government of Bombay has agreed to give a free site for the dispensary which Mr. Cummoo Suleiman has offered to build, and the Town Council has decided to recommend the Corporation to contribute Rs. 6,000 per annum for three years towards the current expenses of the institution.

It is stated that in the Madras Medical College there are thirteen female students. In the M.B. class there is one East Indian; in the L.M. class, one East Indian and one Hindu; in the second L.M. Class, four East Indians, two Native Christians and one European; and in the chemistry class, three East Indians.

INDIAN INTELLIGENCE.

The ceremony of unveiling the statue of the late Prosunna Kumar Tagore took place in the Senate House of the Calcutta University on Jan. 10, by H.E. the Viceroy, as Chancellor. The statue has been presented to the University by the Maharaja Sir Jotundra Mohun Tagore. The Viceroy gave a sketch of the life and public career of Prosunna Kumar Tagore, who especially concerned himself with the extension and development of education. Amongst other proofs of his liberality, he left a munificent bequest for the establishment of a Law Professorship in connection with the Calcutta University. The statue is said to be a very good likeness.

Professor Monier Williams, LL.D., C.I.E., gave on the same occasion, introduced by H.E. the Viceroy, an account of the Indian Institute at Oxford, in the establishment of which he has made very great exertions. After describing the present state of progress of the Institute, he urged the importance of scholarships for enabling Indian students to study at Oxford. Mr. H. L. Harrison suggested the establishment of a Committee at Calcutta for promoting such scholarships, and it appears that the Government of India intend to nominate five students annually for the Indian Institute.

The citizens of Bombay have testified their strong appreciation of the public services of Mr. Nowrozjee Furdonjee, by giving him a public dinner on the occasion of his receiving the well-merited honour of being appointed a C.B.E. Sir Jamsetjee Jejeebhoy, Bart., was in the chair, and the party consisted of above four hundred representatives of different sections of the native community. The most cordial testimony was borne by the various speakers to the high character and the unwearied exertions for the public good of the guest of the evening. We desire specially to mention that Mr. Nowrozjee Furdonjee, at a time when female education of the newer kind was hardly thought of, took a prominent part in organising Associations for the education of Parsee girls. He replied to the toast in his honour by an interesting speech, showing how deeply he felt the enthusiastic reception which had been accorded him.

The Dewan of Travancore has lately established an experimental farm, which is said to be progressing very favourably.

Babu Ambica Charan Sen, lecturer at the Krishnaghur College, who passed so successfully at the Royal Agricultural College, Cirencester, is appointed a probationer under the Native Civil Service Rules, and is posted to Shahabad.

Mr. Srinath Datta, at present manager of the Bisho Nath Tea Company, Assam, has, it is said, applied to the Government of Bengal for the grant of 200 acres of land for establishing a model farm within 24 miles of Calcutta. Mr. Datta studied at the Royal Agricultural College.

We have received the report of the Mary Carpenter Scholarship Examination at Bombay, held December 17th. There were 62 candidates for the form Scholarships; 27 Marathi Hindus, 19 Parsees, 14 Gujerati Hindus, one Mahommedan and one Israelite. We shall give the details of the Examination next month. These Scholarships are granted by the Bombay Branch of the National Indian Association.

PERSONAL INTELLIGENCE.

The following gentlemen were called to the Bar in Hilary Term:—Mr. C. Vencatanarasiah (Inner Temple), Mr. Manobendra Krishna Deva (Inner Temple), Mr. Rastamji Dhanjibhai Sethna, LL.B., B.A., Bombay University (Middle Temple), 1st Lecture Prize £50, Hilary Term, 1884, 50 guineas Equity Scholar, Hilary 1882, 30 guineas Real and Personal Property, Trinity 1882 and Trinity 1883.

Mr. H. E. Banatvala, of Bombay, was among the successful candidates at the late Competitive Examination for the Indian Medical Service, standing third, with 2,102 marks.

Mr. Mudalitar by Eleyatamby, student of the Ceylon Medical School, has passed the Primary Examinations in Anatomy and Physiology of the Royal College of Surgeons.

Mr. R. G. Kar has passed the Final Examination for the License of the Royal College of Physicians of Edinburgh.

On Feb. 13th some members of the Northbrook Indian Club entertained Mr. R. D. Sethna, Hon. Sec. of the Club, at luncheon on the occasion of his having passed his legal Examinations with high honour. Sir Ashley Eden presided, and among those present were Sir George Kellner, Colonel Yule, Sir George Birdwood, Mr. Thornton, Mr. Pedder, Mr. Seymour Fitzgerald, and other gentlemen.

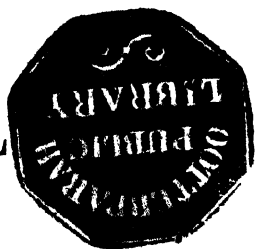
Departure.—Mr. Rajani Kanto Sen, for Calcutta.

We acknowledge with thanks the Report of the Indian Education Commission; the Madras Educational Record, New Series; the Madras Mouthly Magazine; the Sanskrit Reader, No. 1.

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ANNUAL MEETING OF THE NATIONAL INDIAN ASSOCIATION.

THE Annual Meeting of the National Indian Association was held on Monday, March 17, at Exeter Hall. The Chair was taken by the Right Hon. Sir Arthur Hobhouse, K.C.S.I. Among those present were Mr. Lionel Ashburner, C.S.I., Mr. C. R. Lindsay, Lady Hobhouse, Mr. Thomas H. Thornton, C.S.I., Mrs. Hoggan, M.D., Mr. J. W. Shefer, C.S.I., Mrs. Fitch, Mr. Percy Sinnett, Mrs. Akroyd, Mr. Lalmohun Ghose, Mr. J. B. Knight, C.I.E., Mrs. Knight, Mrs. Palit, Mr. D. R. Colah, Mr. A. K. Settna, Mr. W. Martin Wood, Mr. Lal Ganga Ram, Mrs. Bloxam, Mr. Bouluois, Mr. Spankie, Mr. E. Giles, Rev. James Long, and many others interested in India.

THE CHAIRMAN began by calling attention to the Report for 1883, which was already in the hands of those present, expressing his pleasure at taking the chair on the occasion. He hoped that as times went on the Association might vindicate its title to be called the National Indian Association. Although no large number of members were at present enrolled and the income was on a small scale, yet the work of a society is not always governed by the amount of income or the number of its members. The following is an abstract of the Chairman's remarks:—Although we cannot boast that our number or our income is on a national scale, I submit with confidence that the character and the work of the Society is entirely national. Its object is to be always forging bonds of union between the English nation and the Indian people, who perhaps are not a nation, being too divided for that; but they are at all events a very large

portion of the human race. The course of history has brought England and India so closely into contact that it is impossible that they should avoid exercising a great influence on one another, which must be either for good or evil. The increase of the facility of communication, which has been so great of late years, will certainly render the connection closer as time goes on. It is the object of this Association, as far as it can guide events, to see that the influence shall be for good and not for evil. The first condition of kindly or beneficial intercourse between man and man is that two men should know each other, and accordingly the first object of the Association is to extend a knowledge of India in England and to create an interest in its people. One is often struck by the ignorance of the affairs of India displayed by the average Englishman. A man will sometimes talk in a very glib fashion of our empire, our great dependency, the richest jewel in the English crown, &c., and the enormous advantage we have obtained by being rulers of India. But when he is brought down to particulars it may be found that he does not clearly know whether India is as big as England or as Europe; whether it is inhabited by one race, by two, or by ten; whether the people speak one language or twenty; whether they hold one religion or a dozen; whether they are one society acting together, or are split up into thousands of castes; nor how we got there, nor what has been our action since our arrival. There is a general idea that India is a large country inhabited by people called "Natives," who are much alike and speak the "native" language; that those Natives are all blacks and all idolaters; that they are very rich, and that we got possession of the country through some divine or natural dispensation, by which easy and spontaneous processes are devised to enable strong nations to rule over weak ones. That is the idea generally pervading men's minds. There is some truth in it and a great deal of error; so much error as to spoil and vitiate any efforts, however well-meant, to secure a just and judicious treatment of the one people by the other. The object the Association puts first is to dissipate the error as far as it can, and increase the knowledge of India amongst the English people, and it is a national object which deserves national support. If such be the ignorance of Englishmen concerning India, the ignorance of the people of India concerning England is far greater and more profound. I for one do not see how the ignorance is to be dissipated.

unless it is through the minds of those Indians who have enterprise enough to come to England and to reside here for a substantial space of time.—I find the object put third in the Society's list is the promotion of friendly intercourse between English people and the people of India. If I were to select any one of its objects as the most practical, the most within our compass, and which has met with the greatest amount of success, I should select this one. Every year an increasing number of young men come over from India; some for the purposes of commerce, but most of them to obtain an education, either professional or general. Of these, all—except a very few who remain for commercial purposes—go back to India and settle in their own neighbourhood and among their own friends, where each becomes a focus and an oracle of information respecting England. He is our interpreter to the people of India, and it is probable, moreover, that looking to the amount of training he has got, and the extra robustness given to his mind by travel and education, he will be a leader of people's thoughts on other important subjects. Will it not then make a difference how the man has been treated and handled during the period of his European education? Suppose one of your own sons to go out to Germany to reside there for some years; he is there subject to a feeling of isolation which makes him miserable, and is removed from home and those wholesome restraints of family and association which save a man from many a scrape. It may make all the difference to him, and probably will, whether he is received in his new home by those who guide him aright and with kindness, or whether he is neglected; it will make all the difference between his being a useful member of society, promoting order, peace and good will wherever he goes, and being a bad member, bringing disorder and turbulence in his train. If that is so with regard to the slight difference between one European country and another, how much greater is the change when a young Indian comes away from his friends to England. The gulf between him and the English, in colour, religion and habits is much greater, and the removal of restraint is more marked, as the difference in point of liberty between Indians and Europeans is much greater than that between the peoples of one European country and of another. The young man from India is in a situation of great peril, and he can only get through without harm and with profit if there is some one to

take him by the hand, treat him kindly, and place him where he will be taken care of; to advise him in difficulties and to sympathise in his joys and sorrows. That is an object of the Association which deserves support on a large scale.

SIR ALEXANDER ARBUTHNOT, K.C.S.I., in moving the adoption of the Report, said: I think it is apparent from the facts stated in the Report that with one exception, to which I will refer presently, the progress of the Association during the past year has been fairly satisfactory. The increase in the number of members and consequent improvement in the finances of the Association; the impetus which has been given to that important reform, the employment of medical women in India; the munificent donations made by native gentlemen at Bombay for the erection of a hospital and of a dispensary for women; the throwing open to female students of the Medical Colleges and Schools at Calcutta, Agra and Lahore; the early prospect of the establishment of a hospital for women at Madras, under efficient female management; the successful promotion of Home Teaching at Madras; and in London the continued publication of the monthly Journal and the success of the evening meetings, which are intended to promote social intercourse between English ladies and gentlemen and natives of India visiting England for study or for other purposes, are all satisfactory incidents in the history of the year.

The exception to which I alluded as marring the otherwise favourable report is the unsatisfactory state of things at Calcutta, where, in consequence of the political excitement which has prevailed during the past year, the local Committee have been compelled to give up the Home Teaching, and in a great measure to discontinue the social gatherings, which were an important feature in their work. This is not the time or place to discuss the merits or demerits of the measure which has evoked the intense political feeling to which the Report alludes; but however much we may differ as to the policy of that measure, I am sure that we are all agreed in deploring the sad antagonism which has been aroused, and I cannot conceive any more important object to which the members of this Association can devote their energies at the present time than that of allaying the excitement which has arisen and restoring those friendly sentiments which had become increasingly prevalent between Englishmen in India and their native fellow-subjects. This is a duty which devolves upon the representatives of both races, but it especially devolves upon Englishmen and Englishwomen, and more particularly upon those who, having spent the greater part of their lives in India, know from personal experience the many good qualities which the natives of that country possess.

Sir, in the case of this Association, as in the case of most

institutions, there must of necessity be a day of small things; and I think it must be admitted that the National Indian Association has not yet emerged from the condition which that phrase implies. It cannot as yet boast a very long roll of members. The work which at present it is able to accomplish, useful as it is, and planned, as I venture to think, upon sound principles, is small in comparison with the objects at which it aims. Those objects are :—

- (1.) To interest the people of this country in our great Indian Empire.
- (2.) To co-operate with efforts for promoting education and social reform in India.
- (3.) To promote friendly intercourse between English people and the people of India.

It might be thought that the first of these objects was not difficult of attainment. When we consider what the British Empire in India is, when we remember its extent, its population, the variety of its races, the value of its products, the almost romantic history of its conquest and consolidation, and the advantages which its possession confers upon many Englishmen of all ranks and classes, we might suppose that it would be an easy matter to interest the people of England in this vast Indian Empire. But we know that the actual facts are not exactly what we should wish them to be. We know that an Indian debate in Parliament is too often a signal for empty benches, and speaking from my own personal observation I am bound to confess that since my return from India nothing has struck me more than the apparent indifference with which any mention of India is received by a normal English audience. This is a state of things which is not creditable to our nation. It is in truth one of the many difficulties which beset our government of India. But India would never have been won if Englishmen were deterred by difficulties, and if we compare its present condition with that which some of us are able to remember we shall not regard with any serious misgivings the attainment of every one of the objects which this Association has in view.

I recollect reading, not very long ago, in the memoir of an eminent and popular statesman who belonged to a generation now passed away, a speech delivered by him many years since, in which he quoted some remarkable words of Mr. Burke, as applicable to the time at which he spoke. Mr. Burke's words were: "We may have rivals, we may have enemies. I do not fear the power of our rivals. I do not fear the greatness of our enemies. But there is one thing which I do fear, and that is our own power and our own greatness. Our Indian Empire is an awful thing."

Nearly a century has elapsed since those words were uttered by the ablest political philosopher that the English nation has produced. Nearly fifty years have passed by since they were quoted by Lord Melbourne as illustrating some of the difficulties which surrounded his government in 1835. What a vista of important events, of difficulties overcome, of conquests achieved in peace as well as in war, the mere mention of those periods brings before the mind's eye! Looking to India alone, it places before us the great wars of the closing years of the last and of the earlier years of the present century. It recalls to our memories the names of some of India's greatest statesmen, of Munro and Malcolm, of Elphinstone and Metcalfe, men whose fame is still nearly as fresh as if they had died but yesterday, whose authority is still appealed to whenever a question of more than usual difficulty comes up. It reminds us of the era of peaceful administration inaugurated by Lord William Bentinck, of the beginning of native education, of the abolition of *suttee* and of the suppression of slavery in India. It leads us on over the disasters of the first Afghan war, to the conquest of the Punjab and the final consolidation of the Empire under the great Pro-Consul, to the introduction of railways and telegraphs, to the mutiny, to John Lawrence and the noble band of men who stemmed and quelled that terrible rebellion, to the abolition of the great Company and the transfer of India to the Crown, to the remodelling of our Courts, to the reforms of our revenue and fiscal system, to the establishment of our Legislative Councils, to our Codes which are the envy and admiration of the most eminent jurists, until our survey brings us to the present time, with its development of public works, with its Colleges and Universities, with its liberal measures for primary education, with its questions of local self-government and of the advancement of native officials, with its native States administered by highly-educated and trained native administrators, with native Indian students in our English Universities and Inns of Court, and last, but not least, with our National Indian Association, which seeks to give us a link between the Englishman and the Asiatic and to supply to India some of those social wants which are hardly within the scope of the direct action of a Government.

Is not such a retrospect, brief and cursory though it be, sufficient to reassure us and to prevent our indulging in undue apprehensions as to the success of our endeavours? Difficulties there are and always will be, and in India, as elsewhere, the political horizon is seldom entirely serene. At the present moment there is at least one cloud which may spread and darken our prospect more speedily than some of us anticipate, but it is not the less, it is the more incumbent upon us to do what we can to improve our administration and to promote union and friendly relations

between the members of our own race and the people whom Providence has entrusted to our rule. Let us therefore persist in the good work which has been begun, adopting as our motto and observing as our guide the four words which close an article in a recent number of your Journal—"Never hasting, never resting."

Mr. BRYCE, M.P., as one who had not been in India, but felt profoundly interested in Indian questions, desired to say that the silence with which the mention of India was sometimes received in England was not always to be attributed to indifference; occasionally that silence was imposed by conscious ignorance of a subject whose importance and complexity were fully realised. Many of those who were chiefly called upon to take thought for India were reluctant to express opinions because they knew how difficult it was to arrive at true knowledge. Many Englishmen entertained heartfelt sympathy with the work of this Association, and to one branch of it his attention had been specially directed by his interest in analogous work at home. The diffusion of knowledge of Indian problems in England was aided by a large influx of natives of India; and they rendered great service to both countries, who strove to remove any obstacles which interfered with freedom of intercourse between those natives and the English people, so that we might learn from them, in their own words, how English ideas and institutions struck them, and what the relations of the two races appeared to them to be. An evening spent in conversation with a number of young men, who came here to pursue legal or other studies, seemed to give a new feeling about Indian problems; Indian questions were invested with much more living reality when one heard from their lips how they presented themselves to their minds; and if anything would encourage the influx of native Indians to this country, make them at home when they did come, and increase the beneficial influence of their intercourse with us it was the work undertaken by this Association. One of its objects was to promote female education, which had made enormous strides in this country during the last fifteen or twenty years. When the Schools Enquiry Commission was appointed, in 1865, we had not reached the idea of making any further public provision for the education of girls than that given in Elementary Schools; but now there were excellent Upper and Middle Public Day Schools for girls, while four or five institutions existed where instruction similar to that of the old Universities was open to women. The results achieved were greater than it had been supposed the public mind was ripe for; but, when a few ladies had led the way, it was seen that the public were prepared to follow. In India, greater difficulties were interposed by prejudice and by the social habits and social organisation of the

people; but the difficulties might not prove insuperable; and those difficulties should induce us the more earnestly to apply ourselves to the task. A stimulus was furnished by recollecting how much we owed to women of what was best in our recent literature and in every kind of charitable and philanthropic work. We could hardly rise to the highest civilisation without the co-operation of woman. It was one of the objects of this Association, endeavouring to mediate between the ideas and habits of the East and those of the civilised people of the West, to enable us the better to enter into and appreciate the ideas which lie at the root of Eastern life, and, on the other hand, to convey to the Eastern world those forms and shapes in which Western civilisation has been able to make the greatest progress. If we compared modern civilisation with the civilisations of Greece and Rome we should find that in no direction had there been so marked a progress as in the improvement of the position of women, their participation in the highest aspirations and efforts of men, and the influence they exercised on the body politic. Hence the wisdom of endeavouring to convey, as far as we could, into the East Western habits and ideas as to raising the position of women. Education was the most pervading, the most subtle, the least obtrusive, and the most steadily operating influence we could apply. Through the efforts of the Association schools had been founded to which girls were invited to resort, prizes were offered, governesses were trained and examined and agencies were established for introducing them to families: in a variety of ways attempts were made to generate a sense of the importance of knowledge and culture in women's lives, and to stimulate a disposition in the people to use the educational agencies provided. It was part of the Association's work to provide books suitable for the reading of Indian women. Books might be written or translated on many subjects which could not have interest for women who had led secluded lives: hence the necessity and usefulness of this work. Not less important was it to interest in the efforts of the Association English ladies in India, because they could communicate their ideas to native ladies without incurring the suspicion of attempting to disturb the existing framework of society, much less of proselytising; and the sphere of usefulness thus opened in many ways to English ladies enlarged, enlivened and gave new authority and influence to the life of woman. The partial suspension of the Association work in Calcutta was much to be regretted; but the storms which disturbed Calcutta were not allowed to reach England; here at any rate members of both races might meet with perfect cordiality, reciprocating their mutual interest in the prosperity of England and of India, and both believing that our Government in India ought to be maintained with the view

of securing the well-being and accelerating the moral and intellectual progress of India herself.

Mr. M. M. BHOWNAGGREE said that the Report was a catalogue of beneficent efforts; nothing that could promote the objects of the Society had been left undone during the past twelve months. He only expressed the feeling of every native of India present and of the large number in India acquainted with the Association when he said that they felt deeply grateful for efforts carried on with success with the object of bringing the two races together. It specially befriended young Indians, who, coming to England for education, would otherwise find themselves isolated and helpless in a strange country. The speaker thanked the chairman for anticipating him in expressing their obligation to the kind heart and head who did so much for the Association. It was their excellent friend, Miss Manning, who originated and formulated and brought to a point very near completion those various events of which the work of the Institution was so full year after year; and it would be a grave omission on his part were he to make no mention of the gratitude they, and especially those of his countrymen who derived many advantages, owed to her for her beneficent work. Belonging to Bombay, he was specially interested in what was done by the Branch for that Presidency. The absence of a report therefrom, as an indication of what Bombay had omitted to do, was compensated for by the enterprise of the citizens of Bombay in supporting the movement for the medical education of women with an earnestness surpassing the most sanguine expectations. Not only had a hospital and a dispensary been established, but the Bombay University found a short cut to progress by enacting that the pronoun "he" in its rules included the pronoun "she," thus making its best degrees attainable by women. Unfortunately there were few pupils to become candidates for the degrees, because there was a dead block in higher education. An excellent project was sent from the India Office some years ago. It offered liberal scholarships for girls proceeding from elementary to higher education, but somehow the scheme failed to excite local sympathy. A similar project sent to Madras had succeeded, and continued to make progress up to this day. The Association might well direct its attention to the revival of the project that was sent to Bombay, and which fell through from want of local sympathy. If a scheme of higher education for ladies could be brought into operation at Bombay there would be an adequate supply of students for the medical schools, and the movement which had commenced under such auspicious circumstances would advance successfully to its legitimate results. He cordially supported the motion.

The adoption of the Report was then put and agreed to.

Sir LEPEL GRIFFIN, K.C.S.I., moved the following Resolution:—"That the work of the National Indian Association, in advancing education and social reform in India, and in promoting friendly intercourse between the people of England and of India, deserves cordial support." He said there could be no doubt but that all present would cordially endorse the terms of the Resolution, and also commend both the practical and sensible spirit in which the Association endeavoured to perform its great work and the excellence of the methods which it adopted. Here, in this Society, leaving the polemical ground of religion and politics, where conflict raged as fiercely as on the battlefields of the Soudan, all could meet on the common basis of intelligent and beneficent action, and co-operate for objects the attainment of which must command the sympathies of all who found their highest pleasure in doing good to their fellow-men. Among the members and subscribers to the Association he found the names of some native chiefs and gentlemen with whom he was officially connected in India. He would specially mention Her Highness the Begum of Bhopal, a woman of the highest intelligence and culture, who, in the interviews he had had with her, had always expressed her strong interest in female education; others were His Highness Maharaja Holkar Arjan Singh of Dattia and Kibé Rao Sahib, the wealthy and liberal bankers of Indore. But there were many names of chiefs in Central India and Rajpootana that he did not find in the list, and he could only infer that they did not know of the Association and its objects. It must strike anyone on looking over the Report how small a share of the work of the Association was borne by natives of India. The list did not contain the names of some great chiefs of India in the country of which he had had political charge, and they were men of enormous wealth and importance; such were His Highness the Maharaja Sindhia and the enlightened chiefs of Dorchá, Dhar and Rutlam, who all took warm interest in female education. Some of them were distinguished for having had in their families very clever and remarkable women. Some of these ladies had sat in durbar to decide questions in dispute between their subjects, and some had fought at the head of their troops in great engagements. With these facts on record there certainly did seem to have been retrogression rather than advance among the women of India; but the past, at all events, did afford some hope that the labours of the Association in England and India would be fruitful in good results. That being so, there was ground for disappointment in the lack of native response to the efforts of the Association. Many gentlemen of good ability and of high rank had visited England and had received something of Western culture, but few when they returned to their native land were

able to resist the evil influences by which they were surrounded ; they did not struggle against those evil habits which were now the curse of India, and they did not seek to remove the prejudices which were weighing down their own people. It was to such men, and to them alone, we must look for the social regeneration of India and for the removal of its special hindrances, such as the disabilities of women, the celibacy of widows, infant marriages and polygamy. So long as these were prevalent, so long as one-half of India held the second and best half in social bondage, so long as polygamy and infant marriage were upheld as sacred duties among Hindoos or Mohamedans, so long would Englishmen refuse to allow that the natives of India were socially or intellectually equal to themselves. No nation was civilised which did not extend equal rights to its women. This Association would do its work best if it induced native gentlemen, such as those present, some of whom were among his personal friends, to apply themselves to the social regeneration of their country, to leave aside those barren political studies, which were of no use in India and of little use in England. It was not to Indian students at the Universities or in London that we look for illumination on the vexed questions of Indian policy. In England, when we required a wise and a carefully considered opinion on a political or religious question, on the pacification of Ireland or the enlargement of the franchise, we did not ask English schoolboys for their opinion. If the Association directed the attention of those young men over whom it could exercise a legitimate influence to those points which were of far more importance than any political agitation, such as the enlightenment of their own countrymen, the instruction of their wives and daughters, and the removal of prejudices from the minds of Hindus, it would do far more good to them and to their country than by seeking to intrude their opinions on all the vexed political questions that now disturbed Indian society. There was an institution which had not received the attention which it deserved, yet it was working in the best way to advance the objects this Association had at heart—he referred to the University of Northern India, which had been established at Lahore, in the Punjab, and which was endeavouring to promote the education of the people by the people, to interest them in their own education, to create a liberal and wholesome vernacular literature for men and women alike, and to unite chiefs and people in the regeneration of their common country. The founding of this institution, which had been an object dear to his heart for twenty years, was now an accomplished fact, and, in his opinion, it would be the greatest glory of Lord Ripon's administration. He commended it to the most careful attention of this Association, as it was trying

to do in India what this Association was trying to do here. The founder of it, the man whose idea it was, to whose knowledge, skill and untiring labour the success of it was due was Dr. Leitner. No one connected with education in India had done more fruitful work for that country than he had by founding this institution.

Mr. HAMID ALI KHAN, M.R.A.S., F.R.Hist.S., in seconding the Resolution, said: It is impossible to overestimate the importance of the objects of the Association and the value of the benefits that would result to India and to England from the attainment of them. The prosecution of them would be the best service England could render to India, and none of them would be more important than the promotion of female education. Success in India depended largely upon the zeal, interest and attention which the men of India could be induced to give to the movement. The walls of the Zenana were strong, but not impregnable to the attacks of the forces combined by this Association. With respect to polygamy, it ought to be remembered by Englishmen how the difficulty of dealing with it was increased by the fact of its being assumed to have religious sanction; and he could say this the more freely because for 300 years no one in his family had been charged with polygamy, and his family had been as good Mohammedans as had ever been born on the soil of India. It had been said that Indians returning from England did not seek to improve the social condition of the people; they did not make the effort; but surrounding circumstances were too strong, and they sank under the burden imposed by them. Whatever might be the reason it could not be denied that the social intercourse between the natives of India and those of England was extremely limited. There could not be a really stable Empire which did not rest upon the foundation of the popularity of the governing classes with the governed. He hoped, therefore, the natives of India and the people of England would, in their joint interest, endeavour to improve the social condition of the people of India and would heartily co-operate in a work which was honourable alike to England and India. It was a great thing to conquer India, but it was a still greater thing to govern India with justice and impartiality. Much good had been done by this Association; much still remained to be done; and in doing it the Association deserved the cordial support of both countries.

Sir J. BUNN PHEAR said that although he had the honour of being on the Council, it was seldom he could come to London from the far West to take part in its deliberations, but he felt himself fortunate in being able now to express the hearty interest he took in the work of the Association. The close connection of England with India was such as to impose very high responsibilities on

England. It had been said by an eloquent native gentleman that the introduction of English education into India was acting as a dissolvent of the framework of Indian society. New ideas and new principles of development had been introduced into native society. Social progress for man was discovered to be accompanied necessarily by progress for woman. There would be no national advancement without the advancement of women, and it was to that point that the intelligent people were directing their attention. He did not think the young men who come to England for study could be asked to abstain from taking interest in political matters. It was the best minds of the time and country which entertained political aspirations, and by excluding these from co-operation with us we should be despoiling ourselves. Passing from London to the remoter parts of the country, a great coldness was to be found in the reception of Indian topics, even amongst those who had had Indian experience, and were reckoned Anglo-Indians. The more normal ingredients of English society exhibited a certain jealousy for their religion. It was difficult to get people to see the expediency of forbidding proselytism in India. In the country it was only Missionary objects which had any prospect of success; proselytism forbidden, it was found that society folded its hands. Yet, it was one of the soundest principles of the Association that it should abstain from any attempt in that direction. If we wished to have any influence on the better part of Indian society we must not only avoid proselytism, but we must let those to whom we address ourselves know that it was excluded from our programme. He had great pleasure in supporting the Resolution.

The Resolution was carried *nem. con.*

Mr. N. N. MITRA moved the third resolution: "This meeting views with satisfaction the success which has attended the movement to extend the employment of medical women in India." He said there was a great want of medical women amongst the people of India, for, according to their customs, which were founded on their religion, women preferred death to seeking help at the hands of a medical man. There were, however, many educated ladies who had broken through the bonds of custom and prejudice, fortunately for themselves and the progress of civilisation. But even some of these ladies submitted reluctantly to the attendance of a medical man, not because of prejudiced minds, but because of the delicacy of their nature, and their social customs. The want of medical women had been partially supplied. A hospital and a dispensary had been established in Bombay, which place might be congratulated on possessing the means of saving many lives of women. The door of the Medical College of Calcutta has been opened to women, but that does not supply the needs of the presidency.

of Bengal, where the want of them is quite as much felt. He did not know that it would be wise to ask for a guarantee from the natives, for they were of opinion that if women went out they would be highly prized and well remunerated for their services. If, however, it was thought that the offer of a guarantee were indissolubly connected with the solution of the question, he would suggest that the Government should offer such a guarantee. The natives would not act in opposition to their belief that it was unnecessary; but the Government, for the sake of humanity and the preservation of the lives of the millions of women, should do it. The Government had done nothing or very little for the elevation of women. We now lived under a Liberal Government, and if that Government was truly liberal it should display its liberal principles by liberal acts. It should appoint lady doctors to fill some of the vacancies on the Indian Medical Staff, which would not entail increased expenditure and would be a humane act. He agreed that Indians resident in England as students should not interfere in politics. Indian society was full of social grievances, and it was their duty to try and remove them; if they were successful in that there would be no difficulty in getting rid of the political grievances.

Dr. LEITNER seconded the Resolution, and said the question of a supply of medical women for India was a difficult one; but he agreed that the necessity for a guarantee fund was not so great as was imagined in this country, and he believed the remuneration obtained by qualified women would be sufficient for them. But to reach that condition two things were necessary—sympathy and a knowledge of the language, which would open the hearts of those with whom they had to deal. The position of Indian women, especially in the higher and better classes, was characterised by circumstances which were not known in this country, and in attempts to reform we must be careful not to move any of the existing landmarks. The spreading of literature among women must be undertaken with great caution, and the adaptation of European work must be done most carefully. At Ropar there was a Baidni or native medical woman enjoying a good practice, and there were others elsewhere. If the wives and daughters of the native professional medical class were educated they would gain access to the homes of patients and win their confidence. That seemed to be the right course to pursue. There was an impression that the native women were very ignorant, but it was not invariably the case. In fact, so well educated were they in the Punjab that they provided female teachers before the days of annexation for the North-West, and it is still considered the right thing for a Mahomedan widow to open a Koran school. With regard to young Indians in this

country, Sir Lepel Griffin was absolutely right in suggesting that there was great danger to themselves in taking them away from their work to consider political questions upon which Englishmen might desire information. What was wanted was to introduce Indian medical students to good medical men and to advance them in their profession, law students to barristers, &c.; they must remember that their future home would be India, and their circumstances there would be very different from what they were here. They came to England as visitors or students, and, if we chose to listen to them as political oracles or curiosities, the fault was ours and the injury theirs. It was our duty to make them better lawyers and medical men, so that they might be shining lights in their professions, whilst the education of Indian students generally must not be a denationalising one, for if they were a century ahead of their countrymen they would lose touch with them, which we did not want them to do. Therefore, education must proceed on indigenous and sympathetic lines to be of the greatest use.

Dr. YUSSUF KIAN supported the resolution. He said the English had gained the good feelings of the natives by not making laws to interfere with their religion. Missionaries were sent out to reason with them, but there was no compulsion. His experience in England was a warm reception from everyone, although he felt that there were more caste prejudices here than in India. If medical ladies would only go out to India they would do a great deal of good, and it was to be hoped that the Government would take some steps in that direction.

The Resolution was carried unanimously.

COLONEL MACDONALD proposed a vote of thanks to the Chairman. It was not the first time that Sir Arthur Hobhouse had been good enough to preside at their meetings, and knowing as they did how fully his time was taken up with important duties they could not but feel grateful to him for again consenting to occupy the chair on this occasion, and to give them the benefit of his views on a class of questions with which his residence in India had made him thoroughly familiar. It must be a great encouragement to the members of the Association to see on the platform so many distinguished Anglo-Indians, belonging to different Presidencies and representing very different schools of thought, but all able to cordially unite with the native gentlemen, who had addressed them this afternoon, in expressing approval of the objects which they had in view. It was but little that an Association of this kind could effect with the humble means at its command; but if it succeeded in bringing Europeans and natives more together, especially through its branches in India, and thus contributed to allay, even in a small degree, the feeling of irritation which

had unhappily sprung up between the two races in some parts of India during the last year or two, it might be hoped that the Association did not exist altogether in vain.

The motion was seconded by Col. R. H. KEATINGE, V.C., C.S.I., and carried unanimously.

The Chairman thanked the meeting for the vote, and said it afforded him great pleasure to do anything for the Association.

RECOMMENDATIONS OF THE INDIAN EDUCATION COMMISSION IN REGARD TO FEMALE EDUCATION.

1. That female education be treated as a legitimate charge alike on Local, on Municipal, and on Provincial funds, and receive special encouragement.

2. That all female schools or orphanages, whether on a religious basis or not, be eligible for aid, so far as they produce any secular results, such as a knowledge of reading or of writing.

3. That the conditions of aid to girls' schools be easier than to boys' schools, and the rates higher—more especially in the case of those established for poor or for low-caste girls.

4. That the rules for grants be so framed as to allow for the fact that girls' schools generally contain a large proportion of beginners, and of those who cannot attend schools for so many hours a day, or with such regularity as boys.

5. That the standards of instruction for primary girls' schools be simpler than those for boys' schools, and be drawn up with special reference to the requirements of home life, and to the occupations open to women.

6. That the greatest care be exercised in the selection of suitable text-books for girls' schools, and that the preparation for such books be encouraged.

7. That while fees be levied where practicable, no girls' school be debarred from a grant on account of its not levying fees.

8. That special provision be made for girls' scholarships, to be awarded after examination, and that, with a view to encouraging girls to remain longer at school, a certain proportion of them be reserved for girls not under twelve years of age.

9. That liberal aid be offered for the establishment, in suitable localities, of girls' schools in which English should be taught in addition to the vernacular.

10. That special aid be given, where necessary, to girls' schools that make provision for boarders.

11. That the Department of Public Instruction, or various departments respectively, be requested to arrange, in concert with managers of girls' schools, for the revision of the code of rules for grants-in-aid in accordance with the above recommendations.

12. That as mixed schools, other than infant schools, are not generally suited to the conditions of this country, the attendance of girls at boys' schools be not encouraged, except in places where girls' schools cannot be maintained.

13. That the establishment of infant schools or classes, under schoolmistresses, be liberally encouraged.

14. That female schools be not placed under the management of Local Boards or of Municipalities, unless they express a wish to take charge of them.

15. That the first appointment of schoolmistresses in girls' schools under the management of Municipal or Local Boards, be left to such boards, with the proviso that the mistress be either certificated or approved by the department; and that subsequent promotion or removal be regulated by the boards, subject to the approval of the department.

16. That rules be framed to promote the gradual supercession of male by female teachers in all girls' schools.

17. That in schools under female teachers, stipendiary pupil-teacherships be generally encouraged.

18. That the attention of Local Governments be invited to the question of establishing additional normal schools classes, and that those under private management receive liberal aid, part of which might take the form of a bonus for every pupil passing the certificate examination.

19. That the departmental certificate examinations for teachers be open to all candidates, wherever prepared.

20. That teachers in schools for general education be encouraged, by special rewards, to prepare pupils for examinations for teachers' certificates, and that girls be encouraged by the offer of prizes to qualify for such certificates.

21. That liberal inducements be offered to the wives of schoolmasters to qualify as teachers, and that in suitable

cases widows be trained as schoolmistresses, care being taken to provide them with sufficient protection in the places where they are to be employed as teachers.

22. That in districts where European or Eurasian young women are required as teachers in native schools, special encouragement be given to them to qualify in a vernacular language.

23. That grants for zenana teaching be recognized as a proper charge on public funds, and be given under rules which will enable the agencies engaged in that work to obtain substantial aid for such secular teaching as may be tested by an inspectress or other female agency.

24. That associations for the promotion of female education by examination or otherwise be recognized by the department, and encouraged by grants under suitable conditions.

25. That female inspecting agency be regarded as essential to the full development of female education, and be more largely employed than hitherto.

26. That an alternative subject in examinations suitable for girls be established, corresponding in standard to the matriculation examination, but having no relation to any existing university course.

27. That endeavours be made to secure the services of native gentlemen interested in female education, on committees for the supervision of girls' schools, and that European and native ladies be also invited to assist such committees.

OUR INDIAN FELLOW-SUBJECTS.

It will doubtless have been observed that during the painful controversy which has agitated the Indian community throughout the past twelve months this *Journal* has carefully abstained from the expression of any opinion on the question in dispute; at the same time we have not failed to inculcate, so far as our influence extends, a spirit of fairness, conciliation and sympathy. It is a matter for congratulation that, while there has been in the earlier stages of the controversy much written and spoken on both sides which writers and speakers would fain recall, there have of late been indications of gentler feelings; and since the settlement of the controversy there is reason to hope for a return to those sentiments of

mutual goodwill, and of a desire to co-operate for the public good, which have heretofore characterised the Indian community, both European and native.

A few general remarks on our position as Englishmen with regard to our Indian fellow-subjects will not we hope be considered out of place at this juncture.

In our Eastern possessions we are brought into contact with very different conditions to those which exist in any other dependency of the British crown. In the Indian peninsula especially, circumstances have placed us—a mere handful of Englishmen, as we have often been reminded of late,—as the ruling power over 250 millions of people of various races, tribes, castes and religions; some of them the descendants of former conquerors; others the relics of a civilisation anterior even to our own; some but little removed from savages; but a large proportion peaceful cultivators of the soil, uneducated and unambitious. In the space of a little more than a hundred years this vast population has been brought under British rule, they own our Queen as their Empress, they are our fellow-subjects.

It must be observed that in India the English have made no attempts at colonisation. We have introduced new forms of industry, or have developed old ones,* but our agency has been simply that of managers and directors. Thus, coffee planting in Southern India and Ceylon; indigo planting and its manufacture in Bengal; silk culture in Berhampore; tea planting and its preparation in Assam, Sylhet, Darjeeling and Kumaon; jute cultivation in Eastern Bengal, and its preparation for the home market in Calcutta; cotton planting in Western India, and its manufacture into fabrics in the East and West, and other minor industries, while owing their existence in their present form to English capital and enterprise, give employment to an infinitesimally small number of

* It is often said that under English rule the indigenous industries of the country have been destroyed. And this is true to a great extent as regards the weaver class, whose work has been superseded by the importation of Manchester goods, and by the establishment of mills in India; with the result that the population is better clothed, and at far less cost than in the days of native rule. But there is still a vast field for the metal workers and potters, for whose best productions a large and increasing foreign demand has risen up, confined only by the limited supply of artistic works; while the "art fabrics" of India find a ready market in England as well as in foreign countries. In London alone there are numerous shops in the stock of which such articles form a prominent feature.

English hands in proportion to the amount of native labour engaged, and these merely in the way of direction and superintendence.

In like manner, in the construction of our railway system, one of the most important civilising agencies in any country, no army of English "navvies" was imported, but thousands and thousands of native labourers, men, women and children, were enlisted, the method of doing the work being wisely adapted to their capacity and strength; and thus, led by a few energetic Englishmen, the iron horse has pursued its way across mountain ranges, through trackless jungles, over mighty rivers, through fertile plains; levelling not only natural barriers, but breaking down in many instances the artificial barriers of caste and custom, and giving new views of life to millions whose circle of knowledge and experience had been heretofore limited by their own homesteads. And in the accomplishment of this great work the natives of India have been the chief instruments, although not the prime movers.*

Nothing in the later history of India is more remarkable than the way in which that small but gallant band of English engineers, the pioneers of railway enterprise in India, landed in a country of whose people, language and customs they were wholly ignorant, won the confidence and hearty co-operation of the natives, and trained their willing hands to work with which they were so unfamiliar, and which was not wholly free from danger.

In the huge workshops connected with the various railways, and in similar private workshops throughout India, the artificers and workmen employed are almost entirely natives of the country, and the like holds good in all other departments of railway working, excepting engine driving, for which it is considered that natives as a rule lack the necessary coolness and presence of mind. These workmen are trained under European superintendence, and generally do their work efficiently.

We have thus briefly alluded to the employment of our native fellow-subjects in non-official channels because it is

* The benefits of railway communication have been called in question; and it is alleged that railways have done more harm than good by diverting merchandise from the ordinary channels, and thus throwing out of employment numbers of men and cattle employed in its conveyance. In the early days of railways in England a similar cry was raised; but he would be a bold man in the present day who would repeat it.

our decided belief that the necessary intercourse between the English non-official classes and their employes is much more close and constant than in any Government department; and that, apart from all Governmental schemes for education and for social and material improvement, a great power and responsibility rest with the English non-official residents in India, at this time especially, to awaken and encourage those feelings of mutual confidence and friendliness which during the past year have been so seriously jeopardised.

The well-known tendency of the natives of India to subserviency to those in authority prevents even the degree of familiarity which commonly obtains in non-official circles, while it inevitably tends to encourage a certain hauteur in manner, which is too general in our dealings with our native fellow-subjects. Mr. Shore, in his *Notes on Indian Affairs*, condemns very strongly "the absurd affectation of hauteur adopted in our courts and offices." But in the same article he writes, "To those who come to India as merchants and settlers, I have no particular advice to offer. If I am to judge by the conduct of those who are already here, at least in the Upper Provinces, there is little fault to find; and the new comers will, for their own sakes, speedily discover what line of conduct it will be the wisest plan to adopt for the furtherance of their interest, and the future success of their undertakings, which will so entirely depend upon it." These words were written fifty years ago, and we may well hope and believe that some higher motives than self-interest are now in operation. Beyond doubt the position of the natives, more especially in the Presidency towns, and in the larger stations throughout India, has greatly changed. Education has made great strides; the policy of employing natives in Government posts has received great development. A policy of this kind does not proceed by leaps and bounds; it is essentially tentative in its character and gradual in its working. But it is undeniable that for the last twenty-five years, under

* Mr. Buckland, one of the oldest members of the Bengal Civil Service, now retired, in his *Sketches of Social Life in Bengal*, just published, thus writes:—"It is very natural to imagine that a member of the Civil Service has the most favourable opportunities of making himself acquainted with the natives." He certainly may have some advantages over non-official people, but, on the other hand, he is at many great disadvantages compared with non-official people. The official status puts him out of focus, if we may use the expression; he sees the natives under a false light, while they present themselves to his view with a fictitious colouring."

successive Viceroys, the policy has been fully recognised and acted on.

With native gentlemen in all the Legislative Councils of the nation, on the High Court, Small Cause Court, and Magisterial benches, and filling some of the most important posts in the financial, educational and other departments, with nineteen out of twenty of the subordinate posts in all Government offices filled by natives, and with the Municipal government to a great extent administered by natives, it naturally happens that, even in official circles, greater freedom of intercourse exists than in former days. Still we must fall back upon our text, that it is to the non-official community we must look for that personal influence which is the fruit of mutual confidence. Self-interest, as Mr. Shore implies, if it be not a very high motive, is a very powerful one; and while it will in most instances secure fair and just treatment, it cannot be denied that under the fostering influence of a steady demand for labour and increased rates of pay, the natives have developed a certain spirit of independence which will lead them to resent oppression and injustice. May we not be permitted to hope that year by year will witness the growth of higher motives, of broader sympathies, of more practical work.

We have small sympathy with the doctrine of political and social equality now so freely preached. No such thing exists in England, nor in any other civilised country so far as we know, and we are at a loss to understand on what basis such a theory can rest in India. But there is a higher law—the law of charity, of kindness and forbearance, the observance of which would go far to remove the reproach which sometimes attaches to our treatment of our Indian fellow-subjects.

J. B. KNIGHT.

THE DUKE OF CONNAUGHT AT MEERUT.

The *Prince of Wales' Gazette*, an Urdu newspaper published at Meerut, gives the following English translation of its own account of the laying of the foundation stone of the Town Hall by H.R.H. the Duke of Connaught:—

The 6th of February, 1884, will ever be memorable in the history of our city, associated as it will be with the ceremony of

laying the foundation stone of the Town Hall by His Royal Highness Prince Arthur, the Duke of Connaught.

The ancient city of Meerut—though nothing behind many of the sister cities in these provinces, in fact for its agricultural products much in advance of many places in Northern India, and boasting as it does of a large cantonment station—had no public edifice, either useful or ornamental, while most cities in the province have their Halls, Institutes, &c., and the great need of a public building has more than once been felt in Meerut. For the happy conception of the construction of a Town Hall for this place the best thanks of the community are due to our right worthy magistrate and collector, Mr. F. N. Wright, and the building will be a lasting proof of the good of his people that Mr. Wright has always evinced for us since he has come to this district.

Of the ceremony itself we need hardly say that it was simply all that it could be. Within a few short days the city was made to look its gayest; whole streets were whitewashed, and triumphal arches, with other appropriate decorations, gave the place a handsome appearance.

Punctually to a minute their Royal Highnesses and staff arrived at the Khaynagur gate of the city at 4 p.m. in their carriages, under an escort of the 13th Bengal Lancers. Alighting at this place they mounted a richly caparisoned elephant, and rode at the head of a procession of elephants through a crowded bazaar, receiving and courteously returning the salutations of the multitude, to the site of the Town Hall, where on their arrival they were received by the Commissioner of the Division, the magistrate, Mr. Wright, and the district staff, and conducted to their seats on a dais over which there was a very handsome canopy. The Meerut Company of Volunteers and a Company of the 3rd Punjab N. I., with band and colours, formed a guard of honour.

The proceedings of the evening commenced with the presentation of an address on behalf of the Meerut District and Municipal Boards, read by their president, Mr. Wright, followed by an Urdu translation of the same, read by Ahmad Ulla Khan Sahab, vice-president. We regret that want of space prevents us from giving the address *in extenso*, but we may mention that it was well suited to the occasion, and H.R.H. the Duke of Connaught replied in a brief but nice speech.

After this their Royal Highnesses, followed by a procession, including the Commissioner, the Magistrate, Mr. Wright, and some native gentlemen, conspicuous among whom were the Raja of Mursan, Nawab Syed Ahmad Shah, Sardar Bahadur Lalla Anund Sarup and Hafiz Sheik Abdul Karim, respectively

carrying the trowel, mallet, square and line, went to the site of the stone, where H.R.H. the Duke laid the foundation stone with due ceremony and they returned to their seats.

At this juncture Hafiz Sheik Abdul Karim, brother of the late Sheik Ellahi Baksh, Khan Bahadur, the well-known government commissariat contractor of Meerut, was presented, together with his eldest son, to His Royal Highness, and had the honour of presenting a magnificent silver casket for the reception of the addresses presented by the District and Municipal Boards. His Royal Highness then received addresses from the Meerut Association, the Anjumana Islamica and the Desh Urkarni Hindu Sabha. To these His Royal Highness replied in suitable terms, touching upon the points mentioned in the respective addresses, and he concluded his speech with an expression of gratification on his own as well as on the part of Her Royal Highness the Duchess of Connaught at the novel and splendid reception they had met with that day, stating he would take an early opportunity of communicating to his august Mother the sentiments of loyalty the people of the place had expressed for the person of Her Most Gracious Imperial Majesty, our beloved Queen Empress. He wound up by a prayer that Divine Providence would guide and bless the efforts of these societies for the prosperity of all classes of the loyal city of Meerut.

REVIEWS

THE SANSKRIT READER. Nirnayasagore Press. No. I.

The Sanskrit Reader is a useful magazine for beginners, and considering its cheapness I think it bids fair to attract a good number of subscribers. It is divided into four parts, and would benefit even college students if its plan were a little modified. Part I. consists of three sections, the first of which is too elementary to be criticised, and the second and the third might be well condensed into one.

Part II. contains good forms of expression and idioms, some of which might interest any reader. Parts III. and IV. contain passages from different authors, but the notes on Part III. are not sufficient, inasmuch as they do not touch the real difficulties of those for whom they are meant. I consider that the magazine would be more instructive if some space were allotted to the elementary principles of the various

schools of Sanscrit philosophy, in order to inspire in young students a thirst for that knowledge which was once the property of their forefathers. In regard to the editor's hope that his undertaking will enable students to talk in Sanscrit I have strong misgivings as to its realization.

RAMDAS CHUBILDAS.

SUGUNA BODHINI. A Bi-monthly Tamil Magazine for Hindu Women. Madras, 1884.

SOME time ago we had the pleasure of noticing *Suguna Bodhini*, a Tamil Magazine of Madras, specially intended for the instruction and enlightenment of Indian women. A perusal of some of its subsequent numbers has confirmed the opinion we had originally formed of its usefulness. The subject matter appears to be suited to the class of readers for whom it is published, and the style is, on the whole, easy and elegant. We hope that the conductors of the Magazine will continue to keep in view the absolute necessity of eliminating from it all archaic forms of Tamil phraseology, in regard to which they seem to have been, on the whole, careful.

P. V. R. R.

SOCIAL AND PHILANTHROPIC INSTITUTIONS IN THE WEST.

IV.—THE INTERNATIONAL MODEL EDUCATION INSTITUTION AT NAPLES.

Believers in a bright future for the human race may be triumphant, and the fainthearted who sigh over the slow pace of human progress may be comforted in reflecting upon the increased facilities existing in these days for the accomplishment of any good end on a large or on a small scale. In India we are presented with the spectacle of a few young ladies issuing from a community enclosed within Zenana walls and taking University degrees, an advance of to-day only among the women of the West, who have always enjoyed a much larger measure of liberty. We see the most distant parts of that vast country which has no indigenous professors of science or of mechanics brought together by the railway and the telegraph, and private gentlemen giving themselves the luxury of the telephone. The nations of the earth are in a position to help each other, and thus

bridge over in a moment of time chasms which in the past have taken centuries to fill up by slow increment of patient effort and discovery.

The Institution, of which the name heads this article, is an illustration of what may be done in these days of fulfilled prophecy, when, indeed, men run to and fro on the earth, when the valley is exalted and mountain and hill laid low; when the desert is made to blossom as the rose and the wilderness becomes a pool of water.

In 1861, General Garibaldi appealed to Italian women to endeavour to raise the moral and intellectual condition of the poor and ignorant populations of Southern Italy, among whom it was known, from official documents, that only a very small proportion could read and write. The appeal of General Garibaldi was responded to by the forming of the Ladies' Philanthropic Association, which held its meetings at Turin. This group of ladies addressed a letter to a German lady, Madame Salis Schwabe, requesting her co-operation as interpreter between them and the English nation, as they found the work to be done at Naples beyond their power without foreign help.

Funds were raised in England by Madame Schwabe, from which a school, founded by the Turin Council of Ladies at Torre del Greco, was aided, and another opened at Naples by Madame Schwabe, under the conduct of an English lady. This school did admirable work for four years, and was on the point of becoming self-supporting by the addition of an industrial wing, when, unhappily, in 1855, the lady died of cholera; the school had to be closed, and the Trust Fund to lie at interest till the work could begin afresh.

Some years passed, but in 1871 a fresh attempt was made. "From 1871 to 1873," says Miss Lord, writing in 1875, "the history of ministerial co-operation and betrayal is long, and there came a sad moment when, in face of a broken contract, Madame Schwabe wrote to the Minister Scialoja saying she could not combat the enemies of progress." The Minister was roused to action. He gave Madame Schwabe, in the name of Italy, the Ex-Collegio Medico at Naples for three years, which was lately changed to thirty years. It is a vast building, enclosing gardens, but it required £6,000 for repairs and re-construction. This firm footing once gained, friends gathered round, Signor Castelli gave his free services as an architect, and in eighteen months there were 300 pupils.

There were several circumstances favourable to the institution; Italy had buildings to give away; no heavy ground-rent was required; the leaders of the work had social access to

influential circles in Germany, England, and Italy, which secured an able representation of the work and the co-operation of able teachers. What was wanted was a set of schools conducted on the most advanced principles by a thoroughly qualified staff to serve as models of what has been found best in other countries. Professor Villari, a distinguished Neapolitan, wrote to Madame Schwabe: "If your school succeeds it will have many important consequences. The reason why you found so many friends was that you came to try what was most needed to be tried at Naples. But your success depends upon establishing a real model institution. We have many good common and elementary schools, industrial schools for superior workmen we also have. What we really want is that kind of industrial school which transforms paupers and vagrants into workmen." So in 1877 the British public was invited to join with the friends of education in the United States and in France in establishing an Industrial Department where boys and girls whose faculties had been awakened in the Kindergarten and elementary schools might learn trades and become capable of earning their livelihood as useful, intelligent and independent citizens; while Germany was asked to help in establishing a German Froebel wing.

It must not be supposed that all was left to foreign aid. Italy gave the building and 30,000 francs from State and from Municipal resources, and supplied some good teachers, one of whom had studied the Froebel system in Germany. "Every bit of the work," says Miss Lord, "was done by people who love it; every penny given to the work goes to the essence of the undertaking, while the keen and susceptible little Italian children show results perhaps more quickly than any other children would do. Teachers who have taught in all countries tell me that Italian children learn in one year what other children usually take two or three years to acquire. Finally there was no possibility of organising an opposition establishment. Such another group of forces did not exist as those which have combined to form the International Model Institution in the Ex-Collegio Medico at Naples."

Thus the Institution grew. There are now six schools numbering more than a thousand pupils of both sexes under one roof, that of the Ex-Collegio Medico. Among these six schools is a Kindergarten and a Training School for Teachers on the Froebel system, a Free School and Boarding Schools, elementary and advanced.

Another school is in contemplation. Madame Salis Schwabe wrote a few weeks ago: "The Institution has considerably increased, for in 1879 the balance was 61,751 francs, and in

1882, 85,751 francs. The great encouragement the Government lately gave me towards the completion of this Institution by the grant of 50,000 francs to reconstruct part of this building, which was still in a ruinous state, for some additional classes, has opened to me the prospect that at no distant date this Institution may be placed on a permanent basis as an International monument to the memory of Vittorio Emanuele, the first constitutional king of a united Italy, in the form of a Model Female Educational Institution, where the children are not only instructed in different branches of knowledge and sciences, but where they are taught the practical duties of daily life. I have authority to say that the Italian Government is most favourable to my project, and will either secure me the permanent grant of this building, or, if possible, of a larger and still more suitable place for the erection of the monument, for which I have no fear to find among the friends of constitutional rule and human progress in Europe and America the needful 300,000 francs for the establishment of all the various branches which this Institution embraces."

SHORNALATA: A TALE OF HINDU LIFE.

BY TARAK NATH GANGULI.

Translated for this Journal by Mrs. J. B. KNIGHT.

(Continued from page 127.)

(All rights in this translation remain with the author of the tale.)

[For the assistance of the reader the names of the principal characters in the following chapters are subjoined.]

Sasibhusan, the elder brother.

Pramada, his wife.

Bipin, their son.

Kamini, their daughter.

Bidhubhusan, the younger brother.

Gopal, his son.

Shyama, the female servant.

Nilkamal, a strolling fiddler.

Biprodas Chakravarti, a rich resident of Burdwan.

Shornalata, his daughter.

Hem Chandra, his son.

CHAPTER XXXII.

TALES OF NINE WOMEN.*

The Durga festival has come round. At the autumn meetings the earth dances with delight. Old men rejoice in offering the hybiscus flower and the leaf of the bel tree at the feet of Durga. Young men returning to their homes bring presents to

* *Tales of Nine Women*, a collection of tales of famous Indian women, commonly read as a class-book.

please their wives, while the wives collect mentally a number of entertaining stories wherewith to regale their husbands. School-boys delight in their freedom from tasks. The poor look forward with joy to their yearly present of new apparel.

Gopal and Hem dwelling together became closely attached. Gopal addressed Hem as "Dada" (elder brother), and Hem felt a brother's affection towards Gopal. Hem said, "Gopal, are you going home? if not, will you come with me?" Gopal replied that he was not going home, and would be glad to accompany him. Since their arrival at Hem Chandra's home, Shornolata had addressed Gopal as "Gopal Dada." If Gopal Dada would not teach her she would not learn. If she wished to know anything it was to Gopal she ran, it was exactly as though they were brother and sister. On one occasion Hem said, "Shorna! you have not read for some days." Shorna said, smiling, "I read every day."

Hem : Bring your book and let me hear you.

Shorna brought the *Tales of Nine Women* and placed it before her brother, who asked, "Where are you reading?" Shorna said, "The *Story of Sita*."

Hem read a chapter, and asked if Shorna understood it. She listened attentively for a short time, then said, "Dada, you read so fast, I won't read with you, I will read with Gopal Dada." Hem answered, "Very well, call your Gopal Dada." Shorna went out and, finding Gopal in the Boitakhana, took his hand, saying that Hem was calling him. Gopal asked, "Why?"

"Come, and you will find out."

Shorna pulled him along, and, with a laugh, he followed her into the room where Hem was sitting, "Why did you call me?" he asked.

"Why do you remain in the public room as if you were a stranger? Do you feel as if you were among strangers?"

In some embarrassment, Gopal answered, "Other people are there, so I sat there."

"Shorna will not read with me, she does not like my reading."

Gopal began to read. At the end of each sentence he explained the meaning. Shorna's eyes were not on the book, they were fixed on Gopal's face. At the end of a chapter Gopal looked up from the book, asking Shorna if she understood; as he looked at her he blushed.

Smiling, Shorna said, "Why do you address me with such ceremony, Gopal Dada?"

Gopal reddened up to his ears. He had hitherto spoken familiarly with her, why did he change to-day?

Hem Chandra had been lying on the taktaposh listening to the reading. Now he rose to leave the room, whereupon Gopal said, "Where are you going, Dada? wait a little and let me go with you, I have only a little more to read." But Hem said, "Go on with your reading, I shall be back directly," and went forth. Gopal continued with a downcast face. Shorna said, "What has happened to you to-day, Gopal Dada? why do you keep your eyes on the floor?"

"There is nothing the matter, go on reading."

"Tell me why you speak to me so differently to-day?"

Gopal glanced at Shorna, and again let his eyes fall, then said, "Shorna, I am a very poor man, I was serving as a cook in a gentleman's house. Such people as I am ought to use respectful speech."

Again he glanced at Shorna, when she saw tears in his eyes. To divert his thoughts she said, "Gopal Dada, is there no puja at your house?" She did not understand that by this question she doubled his sorrow. He answered, sadly, "We are poor, how can we have puja in our house?" The tears fell from his eyes.

After a silence, Shorna asked, "Where is your grandmother, Gopal Dada?"

"I have no grandmother."

"Your mother?"

"I have no mother."

Shorna looked sad, then asked, "Do you know about my mother?"

"How?"

"All those I play with in the neighbourhood have mothers, but I have none. When I ask my grandmother she says, 'All have not mothers.' If I ask my father he weeps. If I ask my brother, he says nothing. Do you know anything?"

"Shorna, your mother is dead."

"Is your mother also dead?"

"Yes."

"Then we two are alike."

These words of Shorna's increased the grief of Gopal, he gave way to a burst of sobbing. Shorna presently said, "Why do you cry, Gopal Dada? my mother is dead, but I am not crying." Then taking his hand, "Come and see the goddess; have you such a goddess in your village?"

Gopal did not speak.

"Come quickly, can you not walk?"

Walking slowly, Gopal dried his eyes, then, smiling a little, said, "Shorna, do not mention to your brother that I have been weeping."

"Then don't tell any one what I said about my mother."

"I will not tell."

"I also will be silent."

CHAPTER XXXIII.

NEW THOUGHTS.

From this time there was a secret bond between Gopal and Shornalata. Gopal was naturally modest, but now that quality was increased a thousandfold. He went no more into the women's apartments, but remained in the outer rooms. Before he had been quite ready to converse, but now he did not care to do so. Whenever a number of people assembled, he would gradually slip away and seat himself elsewhere. Hem Chandra having returned after a year's absence, now passed his time in visiting his friends. When he met Gopal the lad's sad face made him suppose Gopal was thinking of home. Once or twice he came quite close to Gopal unperceived; at the sound of his voice Gopal, quite startled, exclaimed, "Who is it?" At last Hem asked Gopal what was the matter. The boy answered, "For many days I have heard nothing of my father. I do not know how he is."

"What is there to fear? he is surely well. Have you written to him?"

"No."

"Then he should be written to."

Hem brought writing materials and began a letter, but presently he said, "Gopal, if I write your father will fancy you are ill. You must write to him yourself."

Gopal obeyed. An answer came, Bidhubhusan wrote:—

"I am well, do not be anxious about me. Send me news of Hem Babu's welfare and your own."

Hem was delighted to find himself remembered and his welfare inquired after. Gopal's heart was cheered a little by his father's letter.

From the day of the conversation between Gopal and Shornalata above, new thoughts had arisen in the mind of Shornalata also. What thoughts? she could not have said. She was constantly desiring to see Gopal, but she could not seek him; she could no longer take his hand and pull him along. Formerly, if Hem had come to the inner apartments unaccompanied by Gopal, the first question had been, "Dada, where is Gopal Dada?" but now she could not ask. At sight of Hem her heart began to throb, and she peeped to see if any one came after him. If not then she sighed deeply and became absorbed in work, or

would move away. If Gopal accompanied Hem, she could not look at him; if by chance their eyes met, each looked another way. But yet their eyes could not remain averted. Shorna no longer addressed Gopal as Gopal Dada; not only could she not utter his name, but unless a third person were present she could not stay in the same place with him. If she found herself suddenly alone with him, it was as though her eyes flashed sparks of fire. The lessons had come to an end, she could not give her mind to them. She no longer called Gopal Dada to teach her; yet if she did not see him her heart became restless; yet if he were present she could not look at him. It was as if she had suddenly sprung from childhood to womanhood. The amusements she had formerly delighted in, she now despised; she did not care to play, she laughed at the idea. She no longer credited her grandmother's tales. Meditation seemed the principal occupation of her life.

Towards the end of the vacation, as Hem and Gopal were sitting together, Biprodas came in. At sight of the Korta their speech came to an end. Biprodas asked, "Have you had the day fixed for returning to Calcutta?"

"Whatever day you fix upon, I will go."

"Something must be determined upon as to the marriage of Shornalata. What shall we do about it?"

"What can I have to say on that matter? it must be as you wish."

Gopal felt his heart burn at the words; he rose to leave the room. Biprodas told him there was no need for him to go away; but Hem said, "No, let Gopal walk a little, he is not well."

Gopal, much distressed, went out.

Biprodas continued, "Proposals have come to me from various places, but none that please me. There is one from Serampur, the man is not educated, nor has he any personal recommendation, but the Thakur* advises me to arrange with him."

"If he is not a nice man and is not educated, it cannot be desirable to make up a match with him."

"That is what I say, therefore I have given no answer. I said I could not without consulting you."

"What other proposals are there?"

"There have been others, but not, at all suitable. I have declined them."

After a little, Hem said, "Will you not marry her with Gopal?"

"What Gopal?"

Thakur, a superior priest, the spiritual guide of the family.

"Our Gopal, the one that went out just now."

Biprodas considered for some moments, then said, "Did you not tell me he was wretchedly poor? In other respects he is suitable, in disposition and education, but so poor," and Biprodas made a wry face.

"The money that you have willed to Shornalata relieves you from anxiety about her. On such means how many pass for rich men. It is not easy to secure good looks, virtue and riches in one man."

After some reflection, Biprodas replied, "That is true. Gopal is the son of a Kulin. Nowadays it is hard to obtain one." After a further pause, he added, "Your proposal is very suitable, I was thinking only of means. If he were rich there would be no objection. He is an excellent lad, and, as you say, one can't unite all qualities in one man." Biprodas went out, thoughtfully, and Hem went in search of Gopal.

(To be continued.)

MARY CARPENTER SCHOLARSHIPS AT BOMBAY.

The following report has been received respecting the award of the four Scholarships granted by the Bombay Branch of the National Indian Association for last year :—

NOTIFICATION.*

The Mary Carpenter Scholarships (founded by the National Indian Association) for the year 1884 have been awarded as follows:—*Two scholarships of Rs. 6 per mensem.*—1. Avabai Manetji Kebra, Churney Road Girls' School. 2. Annabai Baba, Bhugvandass Purshotumdass Girls' School. *One scholarship of Rs. 3 per mensem.*—Prabhavatibai Mukundrao, Bhugvandass Pursotumdy Girls' School. *One scholarship of Rs. 4 per mensem.*—Sunabai Hormusji Kapadia, Victoria Anglo-Vernacular School, No. II.

The scholarships will be held under the condition laid down in this office, notification dated 30th October, 1883, published at page 806 of the *Bombay Educational Record* for the month. The Deputy Educational Inspectors Bombay will from time to time ascertain and report to this office that these conditions have been complied with, and will submit monthly bills for the amount due on account of the scholarships. (Signed) T. B. Kirkham, Educational Inspector, C.D.

No. 139 of 1883-84. Gokuldass Tejpal School, Bombay, 21st December, 1883. From the Committee, Mary Carpenter Scholarships Examination, Bombay. To T. B. Kirkham, Esq., Educational Inspector, C.D.

Sir,—We have the honour to submit a joint report on the results of the Mary Carpenter Scholarships examination.

On Monday, the 17th December, 62 candidates against 54 last year put in their appearance to compete for the four scholarships, viz., one of Rs. 4, one of Rs. 5, and two others of Rs. 6 each. This total of 62 candidates was made up of 27 Marathi Hindus, 19 Parsees, 14 Gujarati Hindus, one Mahomedan, and one Israelite.

There were under the 4th standard 48 competitors for the scholarship of Rs. 4, and as usual the competition here was the keenest. The successful candidate, who got the highest number of marks, viz., 464 out of a total of 500, was Sunabai Hormusji Kapadia, a pupil of the Victoria Anglo-Vernacular School, No. II., which from the examination return seems to bid fair to be a very formidable rival of many of the old established schools. Ahilyabai Dwarkanath, of the Students' Literary and Scientific Society's Bhugvandass Pursotumdass School, deserves special mention for the very handsome number of marks, viz. 425, she obtained at the examination.

For the scholarship of Rs. 5 there were eight candidates, and only two of these could be said to have stood the test. Prabhavatibai Mukundrao, of the Bhugvandass Pursotumdass School, who last year won a scholarship of Rs. 4, succeeded also this year in getting the scholarship of Rs. 5 under the 5th standard with a score of 425, against 374, which Chini Maganlal, of the Sir Mungaldass N. Girls' School, creditably secured to herself out of a total of 500.

Under the 6th standard there were six candidates to compete for the two scholarships of Rs. 6 each. They were won by Avabai Manakji Kabra, of the Churney Road Girls' School, and Annabai Baba, of the Bhugvandass Pursotumdass School, who obtained 362 and 285 marks respectively.

The Committee regret to state that this year the candidates in the 5th and 6th standards did not cut a remarkably good figure, as they did in the previous years. They were very weak in arithmetic, history and geography, but in other subjects they did well, and in needlework, both plain and fancy, most of them were up to the mark.

In conclusion the Committee feel a pleasure to write that in response to a suggestion made in the last year's report, the Gujarati Hindus have, with a view to promote and extend female education among the girls of their community, shown a desire

through Mr. M. N. Divividi (Deputy Inspector G. S. Bombay), the honorary secretary to the Budhwardhak Sabha, to hold out one scholarship of the value of Rs. 3 under the 5th standard, and one of Rs. 2 under the 4th standard, to the *bond-fide* Gujarati Hindu candidates who obtain the highest number of marks in either. We have, &c., (Signed) J. B. Dubash, M. N. Divividi, S. S. Nadkarni.

True copy, T. B. Kirkham, Educational Inspector, C.D.

BANGALORE.

A Special Meeting of the Local Committee of the National Indian Association, Bangalore, took place on January 7th, Mr. P. Nagaiya Naidu in the chair. The meeting had been called in order to receive the resignation of the Hon. Secretary, Mr. V. C. Moonesawmy Moodeliar, who for seven years had filled that post, but for the present at least was leaving Bangalore for Madras. Mr. P. Nunjundra Naidu, in proposing the thanks of the meeting to the Hon. Secretary, referred to the excellent work that he had done at Bangalore and to his high character. The speaker dwelt on Mr. V. C. Moonesawmy Moodeliar's earnest efforts in increasing the number of subscribers to the Association, inspecting schools, and trying to promote the formation of a Mysore Branch. Mr. A. Rungasawmy Moodeliar and the Chairman also spoke in praise of the public spirit, activity and energy of the Secretary, and expressed the regret of the Committee at losing his services. The following remarks were made by Mr. P. R. Nagaiya Naidu, the chairman, on the Girls' Schools in Mysore:—"We have now in this Province but a few indigenous Girls' Schools, and they are not in a flourishing condition, though they unquestionably appear to be all in the path of advancement. A strict supervision and periodical examinations of the schools are absolutely necessary, and it is only when the schools and the masters know that this principle is acted upon very regularly and carefully that a good work will begin, and good results will follow. It is also equally necessary that as far as time and finance permit books and leaflets bearing on the importance of female education, and the advantages that arise from it, should be published and circulated among educated men, in order that they may be persuaded to give their girls a fair education, and become good examples to their neighbours, while it should not be forgotten that adequate amount of co-

operation and resource should be secured to raise the existing number of schools, which is far from satisfactory. When I was talking to a European officer, a few months back, among other things our conversation turned upon the condition of our ladies as compared with their European sisters. The officer kindly remarked that he had heard a very good account of the progress of the Regimental Girls' School at Bangalore, and the Hindu *Bhalika Patasala*, and he was sure that in due course this Province might produce a number of well educated ladies. By vigorous co-operation and unceasing exertion the realization of this officer's expectation might be secured, because this country affords peculiar facilities towards the achievement of such a result. I observe in one of the famous lectures of Babu Keshub Chunder Sen he spoke most decidedly as to the powers of understanding and perseverance of women, and he said that these continue dormant as long as they are not exercised and cultivated. I believe that the germ of all our social and religious reforms, to effect which so many agencies have been fruitlessly employed, consists in the imparting of education to women, in which, as is seen, there is a panacea for almost all our social evils and afflictions. Our reformers should therefore direct their full attention to it."

The Chairman also spoke of the desirability of forming a Mysore Branch of the Association, which it was the wish of several of its members to effect, adding—"We have now a remarkably enlightened and philanthropic Dewan at the head of the administration, and all that remains to be done is to make a formal application for his generous encouragement and patronage in regard to the Association, and I feel confident that an immediate response will be accorded by him."

The further business of the meeting was to elect a new Hon. Secretary, and Mr. V. Krishnasawmy Moodeliar was unanimously appointed to the office. This gentleman was spoken of in high terms by those present for his ability, and his interest in education and social reform. He had already been a member of the Local Committee, and had assisted in examining the schools.

After a few words from the new Hon. Sec. expressing his desire to extend female education, Mr. V. C. Moonesawmy Moodeliar thanked the Committee for their kind appreciation of his efforts, and the meeting closed.

THE BENGALI LADIES' ASSOCIATION.

The latest Report of this valuable Society of native ladies shows that their work has been carried on regularly, but under temporary inconvenience from the want of a settled room for the meetings. In the "Improvement of Knowledge" section special attention has been paid to the subject of Hygiene, in regard to which several lectures in the simplest language have been delivered. Religious services, discussions and social meetings have been held frequently.

The Report continues:—

"In the past year the school fees of two girls have been paid by this Society. If funds admit the work in this section will this year be extended.—The second part of *Simple Moral Lessons* appeared this year; the first part has been used as a reading book in many places. It is now out of print, as is also *Prabanda Latika* (a wreath of essays). Both books will be shortly re-printed. During the year the library has been increased by new English and Bengali books and magazines, and the principal weekly journals are preserved. Great efforts are being made to complete the library.—On August 1st the fourth anniversary of the foundation of the Society was observed with much festivity. More than 100 ladies and gentlemen assembled. There were speeches and readings, and at the end a short moral play was acted by some very young girls.—Many thanks are due to Dr. Annada Charn Kastagiri for forty copies of his work, entitled *Saral Sharir Palan* (Simple rules for the preservation of the body), and for the pains he has taken to instruct the members of the Society by lectures on this subject; also to the other gentlemen who have in a similar way benefited the Society.

"It is with deep regret that we refer to the premature death of Mrs. Priyambada Rai. She attended the annual meeting of the previous year, but before this anniversary came round she was gone. She had been a zealous member from the beginning and never failed to attend the meetings except from necessity.

"We have sustained much loss by the departure of some of our English members from this country. The Society hopes that the richer ladies of our own community will make up the deficiency. Rs. 175 were received from members during the past year.

"A brief account of the work has been given. The work that was designed at the beginning of the year was not all accomplished, but we do not on that account despair. May God grant that in the coming year these failures may not occur, and that all the members remembering what is due from them may apply to the work with increased zeal."

MEDICAL WOMEN FOR INDIA.

The following account of the progress and prospects of the Medical Women movement in Madras is extracted from a letter lately addressed to Lady Hobhouse, and will be read with interest :—

With regard to the general medical training of women you will perhaps be interested to know what has been and is being done in this part of India. For the last 26 years a very excellent School of Midwifery has existed at Madras. It trains alike ordinary European women, soldiers' wives, Eurasians, native Christians and Hindus; of these last ten are allowed stipends. Rather more than 400 have been sent out, and 42 are at this moment under instruction. There is no large town or cantonment in Southern India which is not supplied with them. The native women sent out obtain employment on salaries under Municipalities and Local Government Boards. They are fairly well paid, and their progress among the natives is as good as can reasonably be expected. A very excellent pupil of this school told me she went to the Gaekwar of Baroda's wife, and that when in Madras she attended native cases almost every night.

Mrs. Scharlieb has recently arrived in Madras, and it is contemplated that a class of seventeen of the above-mentioned students who are anxious to obtain University diplomas should be placed under her. It is further proposed that a Caste Hospital should be erected and placed under her superintendence, and a native gentleman has offered Rs. 10,000 for a site. I ought to have mentioned that in the Lying-in Hospital, a new and most admirably designed building, there is a Caste ward, and also one in the Hospital for Women and Children. The two great difficulties are, religious feeling, which regards illness as a special punishment for special sins and cures it by additional religious observances, and a great unwillingness, or rather, I should say, unaccustomedness, to pay money for medical attendance. In both cases time is the only remedy.

With regard to lady doctors there is another difficulty. The appointments and professorships at the Universities are covenanted to men in the service, and cannot be held by others without breach of faith. I should think ultimately the creation of special appointments and professorships would be one of the

best modes of encouragement. Of course the above would be equally applicable to men not in the service.

The chief Secretary, Mr. Forster Webster, who was formerly collector of Tanjore, tells me that there is a very admirable School of Medicine for Women there which sends out excellent pupils every year, but I have not the details by me.

I think that justice has hardly been done in England to the continuous arduous and unobtrusive work which has so long been carried on here, and with excellent results.

We have much pleasure in calling attention to the following appeal from Mr. B. M. Malabari, editor of the *Indian Spectator*, on behalf of a Maratha lady who is carrying on medical study with great perseverance:—

25 HORNBY ROAD,
BOMBAY, 15th January, 1884.

A singular case of the prosecution of study under difficulties has come to my notice. Mrs. Vithabai Sakaram is a Maratha lady favourably known on this side as a schoolmistress. As a teacher at the Poona Female Training College, as a Zenana tutor in the service of H.H. the Maharaja of Kolhapore, and as Head Mistress of the Bhownagar Girls' School, she is believed to have left behind some traces of her humble influence. Mrs. Mitchell, the excellent Lady Superintendent, Poona Training College, thus writes of her, under date 25th April, 1883:—"She is a very good teacher and a woman of great energy. She is likely to succeed in whatever she undertakes. She is naturally capable and clever. She knows both English and Gujarati as well as her native tongue" (Marathi). I may also mention that Mrs. Vithabai was invited to give evidence before the Education Commission last year.

Mrs. Vithabai some time ago left the Bhownagar School to study Midwifery at the Bombay Grant Medical College. She has passed the examination with the highest credit. But anxious to widen her scope of usefulness, she has now joined the Poona Medical School, where, after a three years' course, she has every prospect of receiving the diploma of Medical Practitioner. Vithabai is the only female student at the school, and has to study with young men. Her courage and perseverance are beyond praise. But besides the strain of a student's life at 34, Vithabai has to maintain herself, an aged mother and two young sisters. She is obliged, therefore, to draw upon her modest savings, and is even prepared to part with her few ornaments rather than give up study.

It occurs to me that such patient sacrifice in the pursuit of knowledge deserves a better fate; that while organised efforts are being made to provide society with women-doctors, individual cases of self-help ought, on no account, to be neglected. Mrs. Vithabai wants only Rs. 1,300 to meet all her wants for three years. And I have undertaken to find her the money. May I venture to appeal to you for a small contribution? I am satisfied, on careful inquiries, that Vithabai is worthy of encouragement, and that such encouragement will make it easier for her to devote her after-life to public usefulness.

H.H. the Maharaja of Baroda has contributed Rs. 300 towards the object. We now want only Rs. 1,000, which will be deposited in the Bombay Bank, to be drawn upon month after month. I shall thankfully acknowledge *any small donation* you can afford.

Hoping you will excuse me for this liberty,

I remain,

Yours truly,

BEHRAMJI M. MALABARI.

Several contributions have been promised.

	Rs.		Rs.
H.E. the Viceroy and Lady Ripon	100	Raja Sir T. Madava Row ...	20
Sir James Fergusson, Bart. ...	50	Sir Mangaldas Nathooobhoy ...	25
H.H. the Maharaja Gaicowar	300	Hon. Mr. Nanabhai Haridas...	25
H.H. the Maharaja Thakore		Sir Jamsetji Jejeebhoy, Bart.	25
Sahib of Drangdra	50	H. W. Primrose, Esq.	10
H.H. the Maharaja Thakore		The Hon. Mr. and Mrs. Scott	10
Sahib of Bhownagar	100	Dinsha Edalji Wadia, Esq. ...	10
Mr. and Mrs. Kemball	25	Miss E. A. Manning	10
		And others.	

We are glad to learn through the *Hindu Prakash* that the popularity of the Medical Women movement is gradually increasing. It is said that the native citizens of Kurrachi are thinking of engaging, if possible, the services of a lady practitioner, and it is expected that they will obtain the support of the local municipality.

A correspondent of the *Hindu*, writing from Hyderabad at the time of the visit of the Viceroy, states that Miss Dora White, who is in charge of a Dispensary in that city, gave a pitiable account of the need of medical aid among women, even in the highest families. There is no Women's Hospital at Hyderabad, but one ward is set apart for them in the Men's Hospital, compound. It is stated that the new Dewan, Nawab Salar Jung, will interest himself in this important matter, and supply the urgent want by providing a Hospital for Women.

KESHUB CHUNDER SEN.

An influential public meeting was held at the Town Hall, Calcutta, on January 30th, presided over by Dr. W. W. Hunter, LL.D., C.I.E., to arrange for a suitable memorial in honour of the late Keshub Chunder Sen. The first resolution proposed by the Hon. J. Gibbs, C.S.I., seconded by Nawab Abdul Latif Khan Bahadur, C.I.E., and supported by Babu Surendra Nath Banerjee, B.A., was as follows:—"That this meeting, representing all classes of the community, records its sense of the loss sustained by the people of India by the death of Keshub Chunder Sen." By further resolutions it was decided to open a public subscription for the purpose of perpetuating his memory, and a Committee was appointed to carry out the scheme, of which the Hon. Mr. Gibbs was invited to be President. Hon. Mr. Justice Cunningham, Rev. Father Lafont, C.I.E., Babu K. C. Bannerjee, M.A., B.L., M. Ghose, Esq., Kumar Nil Krishna, on behalf of Maharaja Komol Krishna Bahadur, and Babu Protap Chunder Mozoondar took part in the proceedings. The meeting closed with a vote of thanks to the Chairman, proposed by H.H. the Maharaja of Cooch Behar and seconded by Rajah Harendra Krishna Bahadur. The Committee invite subscriptions, which may be remitted to the Bank of Bengal, Calcutta, to credit of the Treasurer, H.H. the Maharaja of Cooch Behar (account Keshub Chunder Sen Memorial), or to the Hon. Secs. of the K. C. Sen Memorial Committee, 6 Bankshall Street, Calcutta.

We desire to call attention to an advertisement on the cover of this *Journal* respecting a bust of the late Keshub Chunder Sen, of which copies can be supplied by the sculptor, Miss Fellows. The following extract from a letter to Mrs. Akroyd from Miss Mary Carpenter, dated May 31st, 1871, shows her opinion of it and also that of Mr. Sen himself:—"I thank you for the photographs of Miss Fellows' busts. That of Mr. K. C. Sen, which you kindly showed me in London, I considered admirable, and, as he himself said, 'a marvellous success.' I could not have indeed imagined that any bust could have so faithfully represented him." A copy of the bust can be seen at Dr. Williams' Library, Grafton Street, W.C. We understand that one of the busts was sent to Mr. Sen at Calcutta, and that several of those who knew him well admired the likeness.

INDIAN INTELLIGENCE.

In the late Examination for Degrees of the Calcutta University five Bengali ladies passed the First Arts Examination. Nirmala Mukerjee in the first division, Bidhumukhi Bose, Virginia Mary Mitter and Kamini Sen in the second division, and Kumudini Kastagiri in the third division. Chandramukhi Bose, B.A., has now taken the Honours Examination and has been placed in the second class.

We learn from *Bengal Public Opinion* that Lord Ripon has offered a donation of Rs. 1,000 in aid of the Building Fund of the City College, Calcutta. At the last Entrance and First Arts Examination this institution passed more than fifty per cent. of its candidates.

Some of the Maharajahs and Rajahs of Bengal have established scholarships in certain Calcutta schools, in honour of the visit to India of the Duke and Duchess of Connaught. They are to be called the Duke of Connaught scholarships.

The late Mr. Gokul Das Tejpal, of Bombay, set apart ten lakhs of rupees twenty years ago for the good of his countrymen. With accumulations of interest, the sum has reached eighteen lakhs. We find from the *Tribune* that this amount has been distributed as follows:—Twelve and a half lakhs for educational purposes, in which education for women is included, three lakhs for charitable grants, one and a half lakhs for specially religious objects, and one lakh for miscellaneous purposes. A Sanskrit College has been founded at Bombay out of the educational grant, which was opened lately by H.E. the Governor.

The International Exhibition at Calcutta was closed by H.E. the Viceroy on March 10. A local paper in Bengal reports that more than 50,000 women went through the court appropriated to ladies' work, which was open 73 days. Many examined and criticised the work with much interest.

The Hon. Rao Saheb Vishvanath Narayan Mandlik, C.S.I., has been appointed an additional member of the Viceroy's Council. A large evening party was held at Petit Hall in honour of his appointment, at which every section of the native community was represented.

Mr. K. T. Telang, Barrister-at-Law, succeeds Mr. Mandlik as Hindu member of the Bombay Legislative Council.

Mr. Coowerji Rustomji Mody died lately at Bombay, aged 63. He was a man of great ability, and he gave much time from his commercial pursuits to promoting education and social improvement. Mr. Mody once obtained a handsome prize from the Board of Education for a learned essay against child-marriages. The Parsee Girls' Schools belonging to the Society of which he was formerly Secretary were closed on the day of his funeral, which was very largely attended.

The Cobden Club Silver Medal for Political Economy in the University of Bombay has been awarded to Barjorji Jamasji Padshah, of Elphinstone College.

A fund for perpetuating the memory of the late Sir Salar Jung has been opened, and it has been contributed to most liberally. It is intended to provide a bust and a portrait in oils to be kept in the Residency, and also a portrait or bust for the Public Rooms at Secunderabad.

A large number of European and native gentlemen were lately invited by Mr. E. W. Parker, Registrar of the Punjab University, to meet the Hon. Syad Ahmad, C.S.I., at a conversation in the Senate Hall. The *Journal of the Anjuman-i-Punjab* writes:—"A very successful and pleasant evening was spent, and much interest was shown in the Allighar College, to raise funds for which the Hon. Syad Ahmad is now visiting the Punjab. During the course of the evening the two poets, Azad and Arshad, recited poems; that of the former being a translation and adaptation of Longfellow's poem *Excelsior*; that of the latter being an ode of welcome, written expressly for this occasion."

The *Eastern Guardian* gives the following abstract of the report of the Madras School of Art:—"The report for the official year 1882-83 shows that there has been an increase in the number of pupils and an improvement in the equality of their work. For the first time in the history of the institution a student in the Artistic Department has obtained an Art Master's certificate, while thirty students were granted first grade and five students second grade certificates. Of thirteen stipendiary students, twelve left on obtaining employment during the year. Considerable progress is reported in the Industrial Department, and the pottery made has been brought to a high pitch of excellence. The receipts on sales amounted to Rs. 330,111 against Rs. 25,588 in the previous year.

A public-spirited resident of Dinagepore, Koomar Girijnath Rai, has expressed a desire to carry out at his own expense certain extensions of the drainage works of the town, estimated to cost Rs. 20,000. He has been informed of the Lieutenant-Governor's "satisfaction at this proof of his public spirit and liberality," and the Public Works Department has been instructed to make arrangements for preparing the detailed plans and estimates of the work without delay.

H.H. the Thakor Saheb of Wadhwan, who recently visited England, was married to the eldest daughter of the Hon. Rajah N. Gujapatee Rao, at Madras, on Feb. 28. Mr. G. L. Nursinga Rao, grand-uncle of the bride, has given her a dowry of a lakh of rupees.

The distribution of prizes to the pupils of the Maharajah of Vizianagram's Girls' Schools took place lately at the Patcheappah's Hall, Madras. * Mrs. Grant-Duff presided on the occasion, and Rajah Sir T. Madava Rao delivered a short address on native female education.

It is proposed to establish an agricultural class in connection with the Rajahmundry College in the Madras Presidency.

PERSONAL INTELLIGENCE.

6

The Boden Sanskrit Scholarship has been awarded to Mr. M. P. Kharegat, Balliol College, a Selected Indian Civil Service Candidate.

In the late Indian Languages Tripos Examination Mr. Golak Nath, Christ's College, was placed in the Second Class.

Arrivals.—Mr. Piyā Lal, from Meerut; Mr. Roshan Lal, from Faridpore, Bareilly.

Departures.—Mr. A. Mitra, L.R.C.P. and S. Edinburgh, and Mr. R. G. Kar, L.R.C.P. and S. Edinburgh.

We acknowledge with thanks Messrs. Chambers's Geographical and other Readers; Common Sense French (Sonnenschein and Co.) The Recommendations of the Commission on Education in India, with Analogies and Notes by Rev. J. Johnston, F.S.S.; The Social Reformer, No. I., Lahore.

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THE REPORT OF THE INDIAN EDUCATION COMMISSION.

Mr. GOLDWIN SMITH, in a recent article in the *Contemporary Review* on the subject of "The Expansion of England," when describing the benefits which this country has conferred upon India, mentions as one of those benefits "*Schools for the few who can use them.*" This description of the result of the measures for the education of the people of India which the Government have been engaged in carrying out during the greater part of the present century is not incorrect, if it be merely intended to imply that a considerable proportion of the population is still left uninstructed, for it is shown in the Report of the Indian Education Commission that, out of a native population of 202,604,080* in the British districts of India, the number of pupils under instruction three years ago was only 2,643,978, of whom 2,517,629 were boys and 126,349 were girls; or, in other words, that the percentage of boys under instruction to those of a school-going age, reckoning the latter at only one in every fifteen of the population, was only 16.28, and that of girls only .84. But while the expression used by the learned Professor, if taken in this sense, is

* These figures, taken from General Table No. 2a., do not include British Burmah, which was excluded from the scope of the Commission's enquiry, or the British district of Ajmir-Mhairwara in Rajputana, which was not visited by the Commission.

strictly accurate, it is hardly calculated to convey a just impression of the efforts which have been made or of the results which have been accomplished in this important branch of our Indian administration. It fails to impart to the mind of the uninformed reader the magnitude and difficulty of the task which the Government of India has undertaken, or the large amount of good work which has been done. Small as is the proportion of schools and scholars to the population of our vast Indian Empire, an ordinary reader, after perusing Mr. Goldwin Smith's few words upon the subject, would hardly imagine that the schools connected with the Indian Education Department exceed 112,000, and that the number of scholars exceeds two millions and a half. Still less perhaps would he realize the comprehensive scope of the educational policy which is being carried out, or the change which has been effected during the last half-century in the character of a considerable number of the native employés in the public service under the influence of the education which has been given in the higher Colleges and Schools. "Even hostile criticism," wrote one of the Directors of Public Instruction a few years ago, "can hardly deny that in this Presidency at least educated Hindus are filling important offices around us in an honourable and creditable manner; that a higher tone is diffused by them through the public service; that in integrity and truthfulness they stand immeasurably above the men of the past generation; that many of them are striving, with success, to diffuse the blessings of education among their countrymen; and that the number of educated Hindus who can be pointed to as having brought dishonour upon the training which they have received is singularly small." I propose in this paper to notice very briefly a few of the more salient facts in the past history and present condition of Indian education by the light of the information supplied in the Report of the Indian Education Commission, and also some of the recommendations made in that Report.

Education of a sort had existed in India long before the commencement of British rule. From time immemorial India had had its seminaries of learning, its Sanskrit *śālas*, its Mahommedan *maktabs* and *madrasas*, its *pāthshālas*, and other descriptions of village schools, which gave an elementary education "to the trading classes, and to the children of petty

landholders and well-to-do families among the cultivators," to say nothing of the learned Brahmins who taught the Dharma Sastras to members of their own and of the other two twice-born castes. But in the instruction imparted by these various agencies there was very little of that which is regarded in Europe as a useful education. While seminaries of the higher class taught, to use the words of Macaulay, "Astronomy, which would move laughter in girls at an English boarding-school, History, abounding with kings thirty feet high and reigns thirty thousand years long, and Geography, made up of seas of treacle and seas of butter," the teaching in the village schools was scarcely more practical. The following is a description of the Pyal Schools in a district in the Madras Presidency, written in 1823, when Sir Thomas Munro was Governor of Madras :—

"All the books in use are in verse and in a dialect quite distinct from that of conversation and of business. The alphabets of the two dialects are the same, and he who reads one can read, but not understand, the other also. The natives therefore read these (to them unintelligible) books, to acquire the power of reading letters in the common dialects of business; but the poetical is quite different from the prose dialect which they speak and write; and though they read these books, it is to the pronunciation of the syllables, not the meaning or construction of the words, that they attend. Indeed few teachers can explain, and still fewer scholars understand, the purport of the numerous books they thus learn to repeat from memory. Every schoolboy can repeat *verbatim* a vast number of verses, of the meaning of which he knows no more than the parrot which has been taught to utter certain words."

Thirty years later the condition of the indigenous schools in the same Presidency was very much the same.

"In the common village schools, the place at which instruction is given is generally a verandah belonging to the head man or to some of the most influential inhabitants of the village. The teachers are generally indigent Brahmins. They are selected usually on account of some personal influence, without reference to qualifications, and are for the most part very incompetent. The class-books are usually poetical works, the study of which seldom or never extends beyond the mere repeating of the verses. In addition to this, the children are taught a little arithmetic, and are instructed in writing, generally on cadjans; but education is never carried beyond these points."

In the earlier years of British rule little was done in the matter of educating the natives beyond maintaining such endowments as had previously been appropriated to that purpose under the native Governments; but in 1813, when the Charter of the East India Company was renewed, a provision was inserted in the Charter Act for the assignment of an annual sum "of not less than one lakh of rupees," which was to be devoted to "the revival and improvement of literature and the encouragement of the learned natives of India," to "the introduction and promotion of a knowledge of the sciences among the inhabitants of the British territories in India," and to the establishment of "Schools, public lectures and other institutions for the purposes aforesaid." The provisions of this section, which may be regarded as the first charter of Indian education, were very meagre and indefinite. The sum provided was absurdly small in comparison with the requirements of the case, and the language used was such as to lead to a prolonged controversy regarding the description of education which it was the intention of Parliament to encourage. For many years the Orientalists had their way. The educational expenditure of the Government was exclusively applied to the maintenance and spread of Oriental learning; and to such an extent was this carried, that when Bishop Heber visited the Benares College he found a professor teaching astronomy after the system of Ptolemy and Albunazar, and the majority of the scholars engaged in the study of Sanskrit grammar, and on enquiry he was informed that it had frequently been proposed to introduce an English mathematical class, and to teach the Newtonian and Copernican system of astronomy, but that the project had been abandoned, partly on the plea that it would draw the boys away from their Sanskrit studies, and partly "lest it should interfere with the religious prejudices of the professors." This state of things continued until 1835, when, mainly at the instance of Mr. Macaulay, who was then the Law Member of the Governor-General's Council, Lord William Bentinck decided that in future, so far as it could be done with a due regard to existing claims, the funds at the disposal of the Government for educational purposes should be exclusively employed in imparting to the natives a knowledge of English literature and science through the medium of the English language. A few years later those instructions were so far relaxed by

Lord William Bentinck's successor as not to preclude teaching being given through the medium of the vernacular languages of the country ; but from that time for the next twenty years the main object of the educational efforts of the State in India was the high education of the few through the medium of English, rather than the elementary education of the masses through the medium of the vernaculars. This policy was unquestionably sound ; for the available funds were limited, and having regard to the educational future of India it was far better that for a time those limited resources should be applied to training up an educated class, than that they should be frittered away in the then impossible attempt to spread and improve primary education among the millions. The latter task could only be accomplished by a native agency, and it was vain to embark upon it until more had been done towards creating that agency.

Moreover, from another point of view, it was of pressing importance that every effort should be made to secure the first of these two objects. It was in the nature of things inevitable that natives should be largely employed in the various departments of the public service, and it was not only just, but on every ground expedient, that native officials should be encouraged to look for advancement, but in order to the success of such a policy it was essential that a class of natives should be trained up, better fitted than their predecessors, both morally and intellectually, for the discharge of responsible duties. This view of the question was repeatedly urged by the Court of Directors. In their opinion, "the first object of improved education should be to prepare a body of individuals for discharging public duties." In the somewhat verbose language of their despatches, their expectation was that "the intended course of education would not only produce a higher degree of intellectual fitness, but that it would contribute to raise the moral character of those who partook of its advantages, and supply servants to whose probity the Government might with increased confidence commit offices of trust." There was "no point of view" in which they looked with greater interest at the exertions which were being made for the instruction of the natives "than as being calculated to raise up a class of persons qualified by their intelligence and morality for high employments in the civil administration of India." They wished this to be considered as their "deliberate

view of the scope and end to which all endeavours with respect to the education of the natives should refer." Speaking broadly, it may be affirmed that up to 1854 the main object of the educational policy of the Government of India was, to raise up a class of native officials imbued with the literature and science of the west, and fortified by higher principles of honour and morality than were to be found in the old class of native employés.

In the meantime public opinion was leading the way to the adoption of a more comprehensive policy. In England the elementary education of the masses was engaging the attention of successive Governments. The system of grants in aid of private efforts had been introduced, and training colleges had been established for the purpose of providing competent teachers of elementary schools. In India isolated efforts had been made in various parts of the country having similar objects in view, such as the vernacular schools established by Lord Hardinge in Bengal, by Mr. Thomason in the North-Western Provinces, and by the Board of Education in the Bombay Presidency; and in Madras the leading missionary societies were devoting a not inconsiderable proportion of their funds to the spread of elementary vernacular education in the districts occupied by their missions. There was much writing on the subject both in official correspondence and in the press, and when the question of the renewal of the Company's Charter was brought before Parliament in 1853, the question of native education and of its more extensive diffusion in an elementary form, was among the subjects which engaged the attention of the Select Committees in both Houses.

The result of all this discussion was the Education Dispatch of 1854, ostensibly emanating from the Court of Directors, but in reality the work of the President of the Board of Control, Sir Charles Wood, aided by his private secretary, the present Earl of Northbrook. This despatch, after reviewing the actual condition of Indian education, laid down a policy far more comprehensive than any which had been previously sketched out. It provided for the establishment in each Presidency of a separate department for the administration of education; for the institution of universities at the Presidency towns; for the maintenance and, where necessary, the development of colleges and high schools; for the establishment of a system of secondary schools; for the

extension and improvement of elementary instruction, and for the introduction of the system of grants in aid of private efforts. In a despatch issued five years later, not long after the assumption of the Government of India by the Crown, the Secretary of State, while reviewing the progress which had been made in giving effect to the despatch of 1854, directed special attention to the question of elementary education, expressing doubts as to the suitability of the grant-in-aid system, as then carried out, for the purpose of supplying an elementary vernacular education to the masses of the population, and suggesting, among other methods, that the necessary funds might be raised by imposing a special rate upon the land for the provision of elementary education.

The various matters dealt with in these two despatches were all of them matters of very great importance. The recognition of education as a regular branch of the administration, scarcely less important than the management of the revenues or the administration of justice; the establishment of universities empowered to confer academic degrees; the recognition of colleges and schools managed by private and other unofficial bodies, as possessing a claim to State aid in so far as they imparted a sound secular education; and last, but not least, the emphatic stress which was laid upon providing sound elementary instruction for the masses—all constituted a new departure, and marked an era in the history of Indian education. But the two matters which most attracted notice at the time, and have since led to the greatest amount of discussion and controversy, were unquestionably the grant-in-aid system, and the orders relating to elementary education; and it was in consequence of controversies on these two points, and of allegations which have been made against the local Governments and the departmental officials of disregard of the orders of the Home Government, that the Governor-General was induced two years ago to appoint the Commission which has recently submitted its Report.

In India there was much difference of opinion as to the wisdom of appointing this Commission. It was generally hailed with satisfaction by the managers of Mission Schools. It was also approved by some officials who regarded with disfavour the high education which was given in the Govern-

ment Colleges, and the expenditure incurred in their support. On the other hand, by the educated natives generally, and also by some of the officials of the Education Department, it was viewed with dissatisfaction and apprehension, as indicating an intention on the part of the Government to abolish the State Colleges in deference to the representations of the managers and supporters of Missionary institutions, and without much reference to the efficiency of the instruction imparted, and to defer unduly to the opinions of those who argued that educational expenditure from public funds should be mainly applied to the elementary instruction of the masses. On both these points a good deal had been written both by responsible officials and by private individuals, which was based upon a misconstruction of the despatch of 1854, as explained by subsequent despatches from the Secretary of State, and was calculated to alarm those who considered that the cause of native education and native progress would suffer if the direct connection which at present exists between the Government and the State Colleges were severed. The views of the opponents of the representations which were supposed to have led to the appointment of the Commission, found able exponents in the highly educated and enlightened Maharaja of Travancore and in a native official serving at Madras. They argued, and to some extent were able to establish their position by reference to the text of various despatches, that the advocates of the abolition of the State Colleges had overstated their case, and that it was opposed to the policy of the Home Government, as enunciated by the distinguished statesman* who was responsible for the despatch of 1854, that "a Government School should be given up in any place where the inhabitants showed a marked desire that it should be maintained." The truth is that the whole question is a very complicated one, and that there is, perhaps unavoidably, a good deal that is ambiguous, and a certain amount of inconsistency, in the language of the despatches which from time to time have emanated from the India Office upon this subject. It was certainly the intention of the despatch of 1854 that, as time went on, and circum-

* Sir Charles Wood, now Viscount Halifax. Despatch addressed to the Government of India, 14th May, 1862. In this and other despatches the word "School" is used as a general term, including Colleges as well as Schools.

stances admitted, the grant-in-aid system should be gradually substituted for the system of Colleges and Schools managed and mainly supported by the State. That despatch looked forward to the time "when many of existing Government institutions, especially those of the higher order, may be safely closed, or transferred to the management of local bodies under the control of or aided by the State;" but at the same time it went on to say that "it is far from our wish to check the spread of education in the slightest degree by the abandonment of a single school to probable decay." Lord Stanley's despatch of 1859, as the recent Commission point out, still further limited the policy of withdrawal from the direct maintenance of State Schools; for while it adverted to the small number of scholars in the Government Colleges and Schools of higher education, and urged that every agency likely to engage in the work with earnestness and efficiency should be made use of and fostered, it remarked that one of the objects of the despatch of 1854 was the increase, where necessary, of the number of Government Colleges and Schools—a declaration which, the Commission observe, was repeated and enforced in a despatch of the 23rd January, 1864, when Sir Charles Wood was again presiding at the India Office. On the other hand, in an Official Return laid before Parliament in 1870, it is stated that "the main object of the despatch of 1854 is to *divert* the efforts of the Government from the education of the higher classes, upon whom, up to that date, they had been too exclusively directed, and to turn them to the wider diffusion of education among all classes of the people, and especially to the provision of primary instruction among the masses." It will be apparent, from the passages which have been quoted from the despatch of 1854, that the language of this Return does not convey a strictly accurate representation of the object of that despatch. The object was not so much to *divert* or turn away the efforts of the Government from the education of the higher classes, as to render the action of the Government more comprehensive, and while maintaining, and in fact expanding, the high education of the few, to make at the same time adequate provision for the elementary education of the more numerous classes of the population.

The instructions furnished to the Commission by the Government of India were very comprehensive. They ex-

cluded from the scope of the enquiry the working of the Indian Universities, the subject of special or technical education, the question of European and Eurasian education, which had been recently dealt with, and the system of education in British Burmah; but with these exceptions the Commission were instructed to enquire into and consider all branches of the Indian educational system. The importance of developing primary education, the extension of the grant-in-aid system, and the policy of offering to native gentlemen every encouragement to aid more extensively than heretofore in the establishment of colleges and schools upon that system; the questions of fees and scholarships; the quality and character of the instruction imparted in secondary schools; the arrangements existing in different parts of the country for training teachers; the plan of payment by results, as bearing upon the grant-in-aid system; and lastly, the important and difficult subject of female education and the best means of encouraging and extending it, so far as the circumstances of the country will at present permit,—all these subjects were remitted to the Commission for enquiry and report. On the vexed question of the attitude of the Government towards high education, the instructions contained an emphatic disclaimer of any intention on the part of the Government to hinder or check in any degree the progress of high or secondary education; but it was added that “the Government holds that the different branches of public instruction should, if possible, move forward together, and with more equal steps than hitherto, and the principal object therefore of the enquiry of the Commission should be the present state of elementary education throughout the empire, and the means whereby this can be extended and improved.” And with reference partly to the financial necessities of the case, and partly on the ground that “freedom and variety of education are an essential condition in any general and complete educational system,” it was intimated that the Government was “willing to hand over any of its own colleges and schools in suitable cases to bodies of native gentlemen who will undertake to manage them satisfactorily as aided institutions, due provision being made for efficient management and extended usefulness.”

The Commission, including the President and the Secretary, was composed of sixteen English and seven Native members.

Of these, nine were departmental officers belonging to the Government Educational Department, seven English and two Natives, and three, all English, were heads of Missionary institutions, one of the latter, the Rev. W. Miller, being the gentleman to whose representations, supported by a body in London designated as the "General Council on Education in India," the appointment of the Commission is supposed to be mainly due. The President of the Commission was Dr. W. W. Hunter, a Bengal civil servant, who has justly acquired a high reputation for literary ability. No exception can be taken to the composition of the Commission, which was fairly representative of the various shades of opinion obtaining on the subject of Indian education.

The Report of the Commission is very complete and extremely interesting. It deals fully and exhaustively with every one of the questions referred to the Commission in the orders of the Government; and, long as it is—for (including the appendices, it covers 716 folio pages)—the style throughout is so clear that no reader interested in the subject can regret its length. The statistical statements given in the appendices and in the body of the report contain a mine of information on all sorts of points connected with our past and present condition of Indian education, which is and long will be extremely valuable. On those points, and they are numerous, upon which the members of the Commission have differed in opinion, the different opinions held appear to be fully and fairly stated in the body of the report, and in those cases in which the dissenting members have wished to state their views more at length their dissents are recorded in full. On some few matters of fact the information laid before the Commission would seem to have been somewhat defective, as, for instance, in the notice of the action of the Madras authorities in reference to primary education and the grant-in-aid system during the ten years intervening between 1855 and 1865; but such instances of a defective statement of facts are very few, and the report, as a whole, may be regarded as one of the most interesting and able State papers that has ever been issued by the Government of India.

It is impossible in a short article such as this to notice more than a very few of the recommendations made by the Commission. Those recommendations, which are given categorically at the close of the Report, number no less than

222. Those relating to female education, a subject in which the National Indian Association is specially interested, have been already published in the April number of this *Journal*. They appear to be well adapted to forward the great end in view—the extension and improvement of female education in India. The recommendation that grants should be made in aid of Zenana teaching appears to be specially worthy of note; for, owing to the early age at which girls are taken away from school in most parts of India, the Zenana teaching seems to be the system most likely to have practical effect in raising the intellectual condition of the women of India.

An important section of the Report is naturally occupied with the question of primary education, to which the attention of the Commission was specially directed, and this is divided into two chapters—one dealing with indigenous schools, and one with primary schools, which have been established either by means of departmental agency or by some other public body. Allusion has already been made to the condition of the indigenous schools in Madras in the time of Sir Thomas Munro, and at a period immediately preceding the issue of the despatch of 1854. It is satisfactory to learn from the present Report that a great improvement has been and is being effected in the condition of these schools, mainly, it would seem, under the operation of the Local Funds Act, passed by Lord Napier's Government of 1871. The Commission say :—

“The Department, working through the Local Boards, soon induced the indigenous schoolmasters to accept inspection on condition of receiving grants on the result system, or on the combined systems of salary and results grants. A steady improvement was effected in their method and subjects of instruction. Reading-books were freely introduced; exclusive reliance upon memory yielded to a more sensible system of explanation and learning with intelligence; mental arithmetic and the elaborate multiplication tables were not superseded, but were supplemented by the method of working out arithmetical sums on the slate; even history and geography were gradually accepted as part of the school course.

“It is estimated that about 8,500 indigenous schools have been brought under the organized system; and the 2,828 schools which still lie outside the circle of State supervision, are expected in due course of time to become qualified for grants-in-aid. Meanwhile, although they do not receive aid, they are largely

affected by the example of their neighbours and 'by the influence of the Department. In short, the indigenous machinery of elementary education is in Madras working as a highly important part of the educational machinery of the Province, and the signal success achieved there in developing the indigenous schools has suggested most of our recommendations for improving and aiding such schools throughout India."

It, is stated in another part of the Report that 3,000 teachers, who have either been trained in Normal Schools, or without such training have obtained certificates as qualified teachers, are engaged in primary education in the same Presidency.

The number of training institutions for vernacular teachers throughout India is 106, with an attendance of 3,826 students.

Of the recommendations made by the Commission on the subject of secondary education the most important is the following :

"That it be distinctly laid down that the relation of the State to secondary education is different from its relation to primary education in that the means of primary education may be provided without regard to the existence of local co-operation, while it is ordinarily expedient to provide the means of secondary education only where adequate local co-operation is forthcoming, and that therefore, in all ordinary cases, secondary schools for instruction in English be hereafter established by the State preferably on the footing of grants-in-aid."

This appears to be a very judicious recommendation ; for the supply of efficient native head-masters must now be sufficient to enable native managers to make adequate provision for schools of this class ; and I also venture to think that the Commission are justified, so far as secondary schools are concerned, in the recommendation made further on in the Report (p. 465), "that all Directors of Public Instruction aim at the gradual transfer to local native management of Government schools of secondary instruction (including schools attached to first or second grade colleges) in every case in which the transfer can be effected without lowering the standard or diminishing the supply of education, and without endangering the permanence of the institution transferred."

This suggestion appears to be perfectly reasonable as regards secondary schools, which we know, from the experience of various parts of India, can be efficiently conducted by a

native staff of teachers. But the case of institutions for instruction of the collegiate standard is different; for here, as a rule, the services of English principals, and to a certain extent of English professors, are required; and it is obviously far more difficult for native managers to obtain the services of efficient Englishmen of this class than it is for the Government, or for the managing bodies connected with mission schools; and therefore the recommendation made on pages 468, 469 and 470 of the Report, in favour of the transfer to native management of certain second grade colleges in Madras and Bengal, would seem to be of more doubtful expediency.

The question of the withdrawal of the State from the direct management of higher education is very fully discussed in the Report, and the arguments on both sides are fully and fairly stated. The considerations adduced in favour of the measure are: (a) the argument of economy; (b) the stimulus which it would offer to private effort; (c) the need of variety in the type of education; and (d) the encouragement to religious instruction, including under that head not only instruction in the Christian faith, but instruction "in such forms of faith as various sections of the community may accept;" while against the withdrawal are specified (a) the danger of a false impression being made upon the native mind as to the importance attached by the Government to the spread of a liberal education; (b) the difficulty already adverted to of maintaining colleges—the Commission say "Colleges of the highest type"—by native effort; (c) the influence of Government institutions in keeping up the standard of education; and, lastly, (d) the present state of popular feeling on the subject. There is a certain amount of force in all these various considerations; but the main argument for the measure is unquestionably the argument of economy; and the main argument against it is the certainty that native managers of colleges must, as a rule, be unable to secure a thoroughly efficient teaching staff, and that consequently the cause of liberal education would suffer. The financial argument is certainly a very striking one. While the expenditure from the public funds in 38 Arts Colleges managed by the departments is Rs. 640,891, the corresponding expenditure in 32 aided and inspected Colleges is Rs. 86,711; the first of these figures being exclusive of pensions, while in

the latter case there is, of course, no charge of pensions upon the State. The difference in individual instances is even greater. The Madras Departmental Presidency College, with 193 students, cost the State in 1880-81 Rs. 53,196. The Madras Aided Christian College, with 301 students, cost the State in the same year Rs. 6,180. In the one case the cost to Government of educating each student was Rs. 349.15.7; in the other case Rs. 27.13.5. If the question were to be decided by financial considerations alone, it would be impossible to justify the maintenance of the Government College. But in this case the Commission do not recommend the withdrawal of the direct control and support of the State, holding that the maintenance of the chief Government Colleges at the Presidency towns is for the present indispensable, it not being likely that a native body of managers will "arise for a considerable time to whom such colleges can be entrusted without danger to their efficiency, and danger accordingly of lasting injury to the higher education of the whole Province." In the particular case referred to the Commission have very properly recommended that the rate of fees payable by the students in the Government College, which is lower than that charged at Calcutta and Bombay, should be raised. But there is another point which, in the face of the figures which have been quoted, it seems impossible to ignore; viz., the apparent inadequacy of the aid given to the Christian College. This College, which is the outcome of the admirable school established by the Rev. John Anderson in 1837, has long been the most efficient aided college in the Madras Presidency. In regard to the number of its students it has the advantage of the Government College. Its success at the university examinations has been very good. The Director of Public Instruction states that "it is provided with a good staff of European professors, and is doing for the Government and the country excellent work at a moderate cost." It appears that a few years ago the grant to this College was reduced, together with other grants, under the pressure of a financial exigency. Such a reduction may have been unavoidable, but it affords considerable justification for the observation made by the Commission as to the necessity of providing safeguards against the premature or sudden withdrawal or reduction of grants.

In connection with the subject of grants-in-aid, there is

one recommendation made by the Commission which appears to be unwise. They propose to modify the policy of entire abstinence from interference with the religious instruction conveyed in an aided institution by providing what is tantamount to a conscience clause, so that "when the only institution of any particular grade existing in any town or village is an institution in which religious instruction forms a part of the ordinary course, it shall be open to parents to withdraw their children from attendance at such instruction without forfeiting any of the benefits of the institution." The enforcement of such a rule would inflict a severe blow upon the missionary schools and colleges throughout the country; for no missionary, imbued with the true missionary spirit, would accept a grant upon such conditions; and by injuring missionary institutions it would assuredly throw back the cause of native education, which has been, and still is, greatly indebted to the zealous efforts of Christian missionaries.

It is now time to conclude this notice, already longer than it was intended to be. The Report of the Commission is deserving of a far more complete exposition than it has been possible to give within the limits of a brief article. The vast and important subject with which it deals—the spread of knowledge and enlightenment among a population containing upwards of two hundred millions of the human race, whom Providence has placed under British rule—is, or ought to be, full of interest to every man and woman in this land. As was well said by Mr. Grant Duff a few weeks ago, when addressing the teachers and students of one of the colleges of which mention has been made, the task upon which all who have anything to do with effecting the progress of India are engaged is a task "absolutely unique. There has never been anything faintly resembling it upon the face of the earth. History, which teaches us so much, has really nothing to tell us to inspire us with hope as to its having a successful result. History, at the same time, does not tell us anything to lead us to despair of our success in ultimately making India, under British rule, one of the most happy and enlightened countries upon the surface of the earth."

ALEX. J. ARBUTHNOT.

BOOKS ON EDUCATION.

We resume our notice of a few recent publications adapted for use in teaching, in fulfilment of the promise made in our February number.●

The new requirements of the Education Code, that in the upper classes of elementary schools anecdotal or other books on English history shall be in use, has had the effect of bringing into existence a good many works specially adapted to meet this need. Of these one of the most notable is the *Stories from English History* (Griffith & Farran. 1s.), by Oscar Browning, Fellow of King's College, Cambridge, one of the most accomplished and successful lecturers on history in that University. The book is admirably adapted to kindle a desire for future historical knowledge in young readers. It is of course written from a full mind and with accurate knowledge. It is also interesting, and is well illustrated by pictures, by plans of battle, and by appropriate selections of poetry. The plan of seizing upon a few of the most characteristic incidents in "our island story," and making them fixed centres of interest, is a good one, and has many advantages over the dry and wearisome enumeration in chronological order of the same kind of facts about pedigree, battles, and public events in each of the sovereigns' reigns.

The *English History Reading Books*, by Miss Yonge (National Society. 9d. to 2s.), have all the well-known characteristics of the author's style, and show—as might be expected—industry, knowledge, and great purity of tone and of aim; though they are not free from a narrow and rather sectarian view of public events and of the course of history, especially where the interests of religion are concerned. The same authoress has also edited a compilation of *Historical Ballads* (National Society), which is better in aim than in execution. The idea is excellent, and some of the short poems are pleasant to the ear as well as stimulating to the imagination. But a few of them, notably those of the editor herself, are painfully unmusical, and lack the *verve* and animation required in a historical ballad.

Of the new school-books on descriptive Geography some

of the best are those of Mr. J. R. Blakiston, called *Glimpses of the Globe* (Griffith & Farran), and adapted to the different standards, at prices varying from 10d. to 1s. 6d. They are well-written and attractively illustrated. *The Geography Reading Books* published by the National Society are not less graphic in description and judicious in the choice of facts; but they are marred by the adoption of the dialogue device. A good little boy is made to ask questions so pertinent, and so exactly adapted to play into the hands of his teacher, that it would be impossible for any child who read the book to avoid a sense of the unreality of the whole exercise. Actual dialogue, in which the child-like enquiry, suggestion, and gradual discovery of half-truths are honestly illustrated, have a genuine charm for children; but mere information gains nothing by being cast into the form of question and answer, a form which, as the learner well knows, is specially manufactured for the purpose.

Professor Meiklejohn's monograph, *An Old Educational Reformer, Dr. Andrew Bell* (Blackwood & Co.), will possess special interest for some Indian readers, since it was as superintendent of the Military Male Orphan Asylum at Madras that Dr. Bell made the first experiments and acquired the germinating ideas which ultimately developed into the monitorial system, as adopted during the first half of the present century in English elementary schools. Bell was not a great or even a very good man; his career was sadly marred by egotism and self-assertion, by the greed of money, and by many rather ignoble ambitions. But he was an enthusiast in educational reform; he developed to its full capacity of usefulness the somewhat overrated device of mutual or monitorial instruction, and he gave a very effective stimulus to education at a time when the claim of the poor to be instructed and trained was hardly recognized either by Church or State. Mr. Meiklejohn has told the story, with all its lights and shades, in a skilful and artistic manner, and his book is a contribution of more than ordinary value to the history of popular education in England.

Educators and Education, by David Kay, F.R.G.S. (Kegan, Paul & Co. 7/6), is a large and pretentious but somewhat disappointing book. It is composed mainly of copious extracts from miscellaneous writers on different aspects of the educational problem, and as a compendium of telling sentences

on a great variety of interesting topics by writers of repute it is not without its value. But the authors are somewhat capriciously chosen, and Mr. Kay's own share of the book—other than that which consists in the arrangement of the extracts from his commonplace book—is of very little worth. The long succession of platitudes which are strung together to form the main text, and generally cover about a quarter of the page only, seem almost to have been the result of after-thought, and to be merely a device for giving some colourable unity of purpose to the extracts below. Mr. Kay deals in an undoubtedly intelligent and sympathetic manner with some of the gravest problems of our time; *e.g.*, the relations of education to the State, to religion, to the home, and to the universities; but it can hardly be said that he sheds much light upon these questions by his mode of treatment. As a gentleman-usher to introduce the reader to many noble and learned persons whose utterances are well worth listening to, Mr. Kay is not unsuccessful; but as a helper and a guide to the right understanding of subjects peculiarly demanding either wide knowledge or philosophic insight he cannot claim a high place.

It may interest some of our readers to know that a large section of the proposed International Health Exhibition, to be held in London in the summer of this year, will be specially devoted to education and to the illustration of the conditions of health in schools, the best modes of physical training, the Kindergarten and other forms of infant discipline, and technical and industrial education generally. It is expected that a very characteristic display of objects under each of these heads will be made from some of the best institutions in our own and foreign countries.

• THE EATING OF BEEF IN INDIA.

(The following article states the views of a Hindu on the question of killing cattle for food in India.)

The subject of the slaughter of cattle in India has not as yet attracted the notice of either the public or the Government of that country; and indeed to Englishmen the evil may seem

either not to exist at all, or to be so small that it would be ridiculous to try and remedy it by legislative interference. But it is in fact so grave an evil, both socially and politically, that I think immediate attention should be given to it by all who take real interest in India; and the present seems an especially favourable opportunity for urging the suppression of such slaughter on a Government which proclaims itself ready to do impartial justice to all races, castes and creeds. If the slaughter of oxen for food were rendered penal, the deprivation would affect only the Christians and a portion of the Mahomedan population of India (for many of the Hinduized Mahomedans never eat beef). That is, out of 192 millions of the inhabitants of the British territories, it would affect only about 30 millions; and many even of these, who have only recently taken to the practice in imitation of the Europeans, if discountenanced ever so slightly by the Government, would bow at once to public opinion. So that only about, say, 25 millions would continue to insist on killing cattle unless forbidden by law to do so.

Of late years the number of cattle killed for food in India has much increased, and the evil effects of this butchery have already begun to be felt throughout a country whose very existence depends on the abundance of its agricultural produce. For since in India, as in many European countries, bullocks are the *only* animals used in carrying on agricultural operations, it follows that up to a certain limit the more bullocks there are the better are the prospects of agriculture. Unfortunately, however, while there is a rapid increase of population, and therefore a greater demand for agricultural produce, the number of bullocks is decreasing, and agriculture is correspondingly hindered. In some parts the price of bullocks has even been quadrupled within the last twenty years. And so the Indian farmer, already ground down by oppressively heavy taxation, and by the exorbitant interest due to the hereditary money-lender, often finds himself unable to buy a pair of bullocks for himself, and is therefore reduced to hiring them. But this being often impossible at the time they are really wanted—as there is a great demand, but alas! only a small supply—the farmer may lose the opportunity for a whole year, and in many cases he has even to leave his lands altogether uncultivated.

Besides being necessary for cultivation, bullocks are much used for purposes of local communication. Corn and all other goods are carried either on the backs of these animals or in bullock-carts from one part of the country to another. Of course railways carry much of the traffic, but as there is but a small mileage of these in proportion to the vast size of the country, the few main lines have to depend on the bullocks and carts to

supply the absence of branch lines for bringing up all the goods from the interior.

• Again, the people of India live altogether on a vegetarian diet, and therefore consume a large quantity of milk and butter. The latter is used by the Indian cook as fat is by the English, only to a much larger extent. Now the price of butter has been trebled within the last twenty years, while the quality has deteriorated. And this high price brings disastrous results on the poor, especially on the labourers, who toil under the scorching sun of India from six in the morning till seven in the evening with only a short rest in the middle of the day, and who, unable to buy butter, have to satisfy themselves with simple bread prepared from millet, and therefore not so nutritious as wheaten bread, which is the diet only of the rich. They are thus becoming half-starved, feeble, miserable creatures. On the other hand, people who can afford to buy butter are often still worse off; for, with butter at its present enormous price, the money-seeking Bannia has every temptation to adulterate it, thus making it dangerous to health; so that latterly a complaint arising from the unconscious use of bad butter has become prevalent. In short, the want of butter has enfeebled the poor, while its inferior quality has endangered the health of the rich.

Many may assert that the people suffer from these evils owing to their own folly, and will propound such questions as these:—Why do not these evils exist in the European countries in which bullocks are used for agricultural purposes? Why did they not show themselves in India during the long period of the Mahomedan rule? Why do not the farmers breed cattle? Or, if they find it so expensive to buy a pair of bullocks, why do they not raise the price of their corn, and thus compensate themselves? These questions shall be answered categorically.

1. No European country is so entirely dependent on agriculture as India is. For instance, the Germans, who use bullocks for agricultural purposes, are not vegetarians, and consequently do not consume so much agricultural produce, and do not require so much butter and milk. Moreover, they do not increase in number so rapidly as the Indians, and their comparatively small increase is further reduced by the large numbers who emigrate every year. On the other hand, in the climate of Germany, cattle breed faster and are stronger than in that of India, so that fewer bullocks are required in Germany than in India in proportion to their respective areas of arable land. Cattle in Germany do not suffer from drought and disease to the same extent as in India, and not at all from the depredations of wild animals. Owing, therefore, to the very different circumstances of the two countries, the slaughter of oxen is not so disastrous in Germany as it is in

India. And even if it were, no particular class could be blamed, since the whole nation consume beef; while in India all have to suffer for the greed of those who only form a seventh part of the whole population.

2. There are two chief reasons why the slaughter of cattle under the Mahomedans did not produce the present evil results. In those days of constant warfare and anarchy the population was almost at a standstill, whereas under the peaceful British rule it increases rapidly. The Mahomedans were often prevented from killing oxen by the sturdy opposition of religious Hindus, whereas the English ostentatiously disregard what they look on as a foolish prejudice; and the Mahomedans are learning to follow their example.

3. There is a great deal of cattle-breeding (though perhaps not so much as in Europe) throughout India; for it is the hereditary profession of a class called the *Gowals*, who make their living by selling milk and butter. But the increase in the number of cattle which would naturally ensue is kept in check, not by their ignorance and carelessness, but by infectious disease, by droughts such as are never witnessed in Europe, and by the depredations of wild animals, as well as by deliberate slaughter for food. The three former evils cannot be immediately removed. But for the last the legislature can with ease provide an effectual remedy.

4. The cultivator would naturally be only too glad to raise the price of his produce if he could. But then where could the buyer be found? Many people in India live simply from hand to mouth, and are suffering from hunger owing to the present high prices. If they rose still further such people would be starved. The horrors of an Indian famine are notorious. But what is a famine? Simply a scarcity of agricultural produce, and consequently a rise in its price, caused either by droughts or floods, or by the destruction effected by locusts or other insects. And an artificial rise in prices is necessarily followed by an artificial famine, which seems always impending over India.

Thus far an attempt has been made to show the reason why a disturbance in the balance between supply and demand cannot be set right by the operation of the ordinary laws of political economy. But even if the balance could be put right by this means, it must be remembered that it would in any circumstances be a process requiring time, and especially so in India, where the minds of the people, bound by the iron ties of custom, are very slow to realize and act upon even obvious changes in their condition. Meantime, the condition of India is already critical; its peasants are on the verge of starvation; and, if left to itself,

the balance will only be set right after a prolonged period of misery and perhaps disorder, and after the death of many thousands or even millions of unhappy peasants. In such great crises surely legislative interference is justifiable. It is necessary in a country where a complicated civilization, perhaps higher in degree but certainly totally different in kind, is being suddenly forced on a people who have gone on without change many hundreds of years.

But setting aside the social and economical evils of the practice, great as they are, when we consider its political evils we find that they are still greater. The slaughter of cattle is looked upon with the utmost horror by Hindus—that is, by nearly five-sixths of the British subjects in India. It offends all their religious feelings, and is regarded as more criminal than the slaughter of human beings. Cow slaughter has always been the main cause of the dislike and constant fighting between the Hindus and Mahomedans, since the first advent of the latter, eight hundred years ago, up to to-day. It has been the cause of the late riots in Salem, Delhi and the Punjab, and was one of the causes of the Indian mutiny.

The only way to make India a great and prosperous empire is to remember the motto, "Unity gives strength." And there can be no real unity while a minority of the population persists in habits deeply offensive to the rest. It is the duty of Mahomedans to abstain from offending their Hindoo compatriots, but it is also that of the Government to insist on their performing this duty, if they will not do it without legislative interference. And especially so when their selfish disregard of it is rapidly deteriorating the material and political condition of the country.

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REVIEW.

INDIA: THE LAND AND THE PEOPLE. By Sir JAMES CAIRD, K.C.B., F.R.S. With a Map. London: Cassell and Co., Limited.

THIS is a non-official account of an official tour made by the author in his capacity as member of the Commission deputed by Government, in 1878, to inquire into famines in India.

their causes and remedy. The official report has been before the public for some time, and some of its recommendations have been already acted on. Few travellers have had such exceptional opportunities of observation as were vouchsafed to Sir James Caird and his coadjutors, and it cannot be denied that he has made good use of his advantages. But it is open to question whether the stray opinions and observations gleaned during two or three months' sojourn in a country like India are worth producing in a separate form. Indeed, it seems to us anything but wise or fair for a learner to give authoritative expression to his first lessons.

The notices of the numerous places of interest visited are brief but graphic; but, naturally, the major portion of the book is devoted to descriptions of the various systems of land tenure, the state of agriculture, and of the cultivators in various parts of the country. One fact is repeatedly noticed in connection with the terrible famines which have visited India; viz., the rapid return of prosperity. "It is marvellous," says Sir James, "how quickly, in this country, the effects of famine are effaced, there being more room for those who survive it."

Not a few recent writers have raised a doubt whether the vast irrigation works constructed of late years in India have been so beneficial as was anticipated. The canal water is not generally popular with the cultivators, and there is some reason to fear that barrenness, arising from *rhé*, or salt efflorescence, too often follows its free application. There is a strong feeling in favour of the primitive and cheaper system of well and tank irrigation, and one often regrets to learn that so many splendid works of this nature, constructed in the days of Mahomedan rule, have been allowed to fall into decay under our higher civilisation. On this point Sir James remarks:—

"Near Nariad (Baroda) there is a very fine cultivation from wells, tobacco and garden crops beautifully farmed, and every sign of prosperity among the people. Their holdings are separated by low hedges; every one has his well, and, where this is attainable, and the water good, I believe no other irrigation in India can compare with it. Each man can use it when and how he pleases; and as he must keep bullocks for the labour of his land, and he and his family on these small holdings do most of the work, they hardly feel the cost of the water."

In an interesting description of the experimental farm of Sydapet, near Madras, we are told that "a well with double lift, worked by one bullock, yields 100 tons, or one inch of water over an acre, in a day. At this farm sixty students—Parsees, Brahmins, and others—go through a regular three years' course of instruction in chemistry, botany, zoology, veterinary surgery, surveying, and practical agriculture, with the view of their becoming instructors of agriculture on their return to their own districts. Such schools cannot be too highly commended. We have also notices of the experimental farms at Mysore, Kandeish, and in the North-West, including the tobacco farm at Ghazee-pore, which seems likely to prove a great success, and of the splendid estate of 20,000 acres at Beheea, which, under the hands of Messrs. Burrows, Thompson, and Milne, has been reclaimed from the jungle, and now produces luxuriant crops of rice, sugar cane, opium, oil-seeds, wheat, barley, and vegetables, the sugar being manufactured by the owners by machinery specially constructed. It is an interesting example of how European capital and enterprise can be profitably employed to the mutual benefit of the capitalists, the people, and the country.

The book abounds in what may be called rough statistics, most of which it may be hoped are more to be trusted than the following, on page 113:—

"I found the price of salt here (East Bengal) three-halfpence a pound. A family of four will consume four pounds a month, or 48lbs. in a year, at a cost of 6s. The duty is nine-tenths of the price, or, in this case, about 5s. 5d., and as the earnings of the family are 16s. a month, the salt tax costs them the thirty-fifth part of their wages."

Apart from what we consider an excessive estimate of consumption is the fact, that the duty on salt in India is only Rs. 2, or, say, 4s. per maund of 80lbs., or a little more than 2s. on the estimated annual consumption of a family of four.

The closing chapters of the book are devoted to "Indian Famines and their Lessons," respecting which Sir James writes, "Indian famines are caused by drought, sometimes aggravated by war or other pressure, and their severity may be measured by the scarcity and high price of food grain, and the consequent mortality among the people affected,"—a description which may easily apply to famines in any part of the world. A slight sketch of the famines which have visited

India during the last fifty years follows, in which it is stated that upwards of twelve millions of people perished. No better justification for the appointment of a Famine Commission could be desired; and its best result is found in the simplicity of the remedies suggested, one of the leading principles of which is "the maintenance of the village system as the only effective means of saving life, by preserving order, and securing to the people the shelter and little comforts of home which so materially help to economise food." The tendency of people in famine times has been to break away from their homes in search of food, and of Government "to obtain some economical return for the food given to the people to sustain life." Sir James goes on to show that it would be far more economical to keep the people at home, and to employ the able-bodied in carrying food to the weak and to the relief centres.

In conclusion, Sir James writes, "The future success of British rule in India must depend on the Government adapting itself to the progress of knowledge amongst the people; for the handful of white men who now administer it must more and more rely on the intelligent assistance of the most capable men among the millions whom they govern." But when Sir James proceeds to point out the methods by which that success is to be attained; viz., increase of crops on cultivated land, the reclamation of uncultivated land, the doubling the mileage of railways in the next ten years, the restoration of ancient irrigation works, and so forth, we are tempted to ask what possible prospect there is of any of these works being accomplished except through the agency of British enterprise and capital. It is quite true that there are among the people, as Sir James says, "men of science, of philosophy, of benevolence, and patriotism, and also men who in competitive examinations in this country have held a leading place;" but until there are found among them men with knowledge and experience to fit them for initiating the great works indicated, and men ready to invest their capital in carrying them out, the country will still need the aid of the "handful of white men" who have already done so much to "familiarise the people with modern resources and inventions."

J. B. KNIGHT.

SOCIAL AND PHILANTHROPIC INSTITUTIONS IN THE WEST.

V.—CONVALESCENT HOMES.

All who have known serious illness—and of what family has not some member had this painful experience?—retain a more or less vivid memory of the languor and incapacity for exertion following upon acute suffering. The latter condition is hard to bear, but the innate forces, as yet only freshly attacked by pain, carry the sufferer through. The next stage, that of extreme prostration, is not wholly unpleasant, provided that no demand is made upon the frame for exertion. To the rich, well-tended invalid there may be a certain enjoyment in it; but how is it with those whose circumstances deny them time for renewing exhausted energies; for the breadwinner in a large and hungry family; for the poor mother who knows that the comfort, even the safety of her little ones depends on her presence among them?

The needs of humanity in acute illness early arrested the attention of the benevolent. One of the most favourite forms of charity in the early ages was the founding of hospitals, and where hospitals did not exist monasteries supplied their place. In those times men seem to have recovered more rapidly from disorders and from accidents, if we may judge by the stories told of their prowess after the most severe encounters. The avocations of men were less pressing, their disorders more simple, their treatment more rude. Those who had not enough vitality to rally quickly sank under it. At any rate, it is only in quite modern times that the necessity for providing Homes wherein patients discharged from hospitals may rally strength before resuming their daily occupation has forced itself upon the attention of the benevolent. It is now found to be one of the greatest boons, as it is one of the greatest necessities, of the day.

The first of these Convalescent Institutions, that of Walton-on-Thames, in Surrey, founded in 1840, owes its origin to the following incident: A medical student found a poor woman in one of the wards of St. Bartholomew's Hospital crying bitterly. Inquiring into the cause, he found she had just been discharged, the physician having told her that medicine could do no more for her—country air must do the rest. Country air! Her home was in London, her friends as poor as herself, means for travelling she had none, a lodging elsewhere she could not pay for.

The sound of the proposed restorative was pleasant, but it did but mock her in her helplessness. The student, acting promptly on the impulse of humanity, went to a bookseller with the request that he would draw up an advertisement for the *Record*, stating the circumstances of the case, and inviting a few donations to make up the sum required for a journey and a country residence for a few weeks. It was a business commission and no more; but as he penned the advertisement the bookseller thought, "This must be one case out of ten thousand; among the charities of London is there no provision made for patients turned out of hospital without strength to labour, condemned to pine in close rooms and crowded alleys, when the pure breeze of heaven would quickly restore their strength? If not, it is time the thing were thought of. It would be better to enlarge the field of view, and make the advertisement something more than an appeal on behalf of a single individual." He went to a physician of repute, made his inquiries, found that a sheltering-place to receive such patients would be a boon beyond all price. The subject was discussed with the medical student, Mr. Monro, and his permission obtained to frame a different sort of advertisement. A Committee was formed, and as the funds came in an infant institution was formed, which received the poor woman whose tears had proved so fruitful as its first inmate. It is now developed into three Homes—one at Walton-on-Thames for adults, containing 300 beds; one at Kingston-on-Hill for children, containing 170 beds; and one at Bexhill, near Hastings, for adults, containing 30 beds; it has no endowment, and admits yearly, on the recommendation of subscribers, upwards of 4,000 poor persons recovering from illness, whose complete cure can only be effected by change of air, rest, and wholesome, nourishing diet. Patients remain in the Institution about three weeks, and are at no expense but that of their railway fare to and from the Homes.

Other Convalescent Homes, like that of Mrs. Gladstone at Woodford, in Essex, and that of Miss Marsh at Brighton, known as the Black Rock Convalescent Hospital, grew out of the urgent need of the London Hospitals, during the last visitation of cholera, in 1866, for places where the convalescents might be immediately removed from their daily surroundings of agony and death.

As the need for this sort of relief became more apparent, and the number of Homes increased, while yet each individual Home failed to be sufficiently known, it was felt that much was lost from want of combination; and accordingly a Committee was formed in connection with the Charity Organisation Society, under the name of the Convalescent Committee. This

Committee placed itself in communication with District Committees previously formed, and has now become a rallying-point for the 39 District Committees, which embrace nearly the whole of London, and for about 50 different Homes and villages not superintended by the District Committees. It has encouraged small Homes by providing suitable patients, and utilized large Homes without interfering with their methods and constitutions. It has acted as a useful centre of information for the general public, and as a trustworthy recipient of the fund which it has obtained and used for the benefit of the patients and the Homes by creating a large class of fresh contributors.

There are several kinds of Homes: (1) The Home of Luxury, where the patient feels for once in his life, the charms of refinement and the satisfaction of unstinted creature comforts. (2) The Boarding House under another name. (3) Private Homes begun and carried on by one who has already spent years of her life at work amongst the poor; these are the Homes, where one or more beds are occupied for life by some paralysed friend, and for cases where surgery has done its best, but which cannot heal in hospital. (4) The large Convalescent Hospitals or Institutions, receiving yearly their hundreds of convalescents, and restoring them to their families in renewed health. Lastly, a Private Invalids' Home, self-supporting, presided over by a qualified and experienced nurse as Matron.

The Report of the Charity Organisation Society gives a list of 237 Convalescent Institutions coming under these descriptions in England and Scotland, of which about 30 are for children.

The amount of good thus done is enormous, and that it is highly appreciated every such Home has abundant evidence in the form of grateful letters; yet it is increasingly felt that the whole ground is not covered. These Homes, admirable as they are, are not for the most part adapted to the state of patients just discharged from active hospital treatment; they are too rigid in their rules as to diet and hours, and almost all require the patients to take part in the domestic arrangements of the Home. To this at a later stage of recovery no one could object, but in the first stage, before nerve and appetite are under control, before the exhausted frame can act, such Homes are not the boon they are intended to be. Homes are needed where such patients can be nursed; where no exertion will be demanded of them until there is some real return of strength; where the hours of rising are not rigidly prescribed; where some indulgence can be granted to varying and sickly appetite. Under the head Homes of Luxury there are, no doubt, a few such to be found, but they need to be more general.

Though not coming strictly under the head of Convalescent

Homes, we think it may be useful to notice here a movement now being made in Germany, applying the same principle to children of the poorer classes in their school vacations. In the year 1878 a medical man at Frankfurt noticed how children with the best hygienic surroundings become dull and languid towards the end of a long half-year's schooling, and would evidently profit by fresh country air, with change of scene and food; it struck him as infinitely more needful for the children who have no proper nourishment, who live in ill-ventilated houses, their only playground the pavement, as often as not intersected by open drains. The state of these children at the close of the school term was even more deplorable. He lectured on the subject, formed a Committee, and appealed for funds. Convenient and healthy spots in the neighbouring wooded hills, out of the way of tourists, were chosen, and the children drafted off in parties of a dozen under the care of teachers, whose cordial co-operation had been gained, to spend the twenty-five days of vacation under the healthiest conditions. Our space does not admit of greater detail; but the experiment was found successful, boys gaining on an average $2\frac{1}{2}$ lbs. each in weight during the twenty-five days; while there was a marked improvement in the moral tone of the children. The movement has now been successfully imitated by twenty-five other German towns. A few schemes of a like nature have been started in England; but the periods of change so afforded are not long enough, and it would be well if the movement could be extended.

We are glad to notice that Dr. Blaney, of Bombay, is advocating the opening of Convalescent Homes for the poor of all communities of that city on the neighbouring hills.

THE MAHARAJAH OF VIZIANAGRAM'S SCHOOLS, MADRAS.

The Annual Meeting for the distribution of prizes to the pupils of the Schools of H.H. the Maharajah of Vizianagram, Madras, was held in Patcheappah's Hall on January 25th. These Schools are under the superintendence of the Committee of the Madras Branch, of the National Indian Association. Mrs. Grant Duff presided on the occasion. Mr. P. Vijiarunga Moodelly, Deputy Inspector of Schools, and Hon. Secretary of the Institution, read the Report, from which we give the following extracts:

On the 1st January, 1883, there were 535 girls on the rolls of the five schools under the management of the Committee, and the number had risen to 583 on the 31st December, showing an increase of 48 girls during the year under report. Of the girls, on the last day of the year 335 were learning Tamil and 248 Telugu.

Town School.—This is the largest and the most important of the schools of the Maharajah. The attendance slightly declined during the year. The school opened with 289 girls in the beginning of January, and closed in December with 190, showing a falling-off of 11. The average number on the rolls during the year was 199, and the average attendance 153, or 77 per cent.

Triplicane School.—The rolls of this school numbered 112 at the beginning and 114 at the end of the year, showing a slight increase. The average number on the rolls was 113, and the average attendance 86, or 70 per cent.

Egmore School.—This is the smallest of the Maharajah's schools. There were 50 girls at the beginning of the year and 61 at the end, showing an increase of 11 girls. The average number on the rolls was 49, and the average attendance 39, or 80 per cent. The schools were inspected by Mrs. Brander, Inspectress of Girls' Schools, and her deputy, in December. Mrs. Brander's report has not yet been received. Three girls appeared for the Special Upper Primary Examination held in December, two from the Town schools and one from the Mailapore school. The Committee regret to learn that one of them failed. In their report for 1882 the Committee intimated their intention of placing the schools under the superintendence of a qualified European lady, and of applying to Government for a grant, with the object of meeting the necessary increase in the expenditure. The Committee are now happy to be able to report that they have succeeded in securing both these objects. They have engaged the services of Miss Emily Eddes, a European lady with very high testimonials, as Superintendent of the schools. This lady was educated at the Home and Colonial Schools and Queen's College, Harley Street, London. Her experience in teaching and in the organization of schools has been considerable.

Sir T. Madava Rao delivered the following address:—
Mrs. Grant Duff, Ladies and Gentlemen,—The first remark that suggests itself is, that this is a very pleasant gathering indeed. It is interesting in no small degree to contemplate the spectacle before us. There need be no hesitation in reckoning it among the conspicuous triumphs of peace and progress. At the outset we are reminded of the remarkable

enlightenment and generosity of the late Maharajah of Vizianagram, who founded those very useful schools. That Maharajah (with whom I had the honour of being personally acquainted) founded these schools about fourteen years ago, in the exercise of his patriotic benevolence, and in doing so he has unconsciously erected for himself a monument far superior to any of metal or marble. Let us also offer our tribute of praise and gratitude to the worthy son and successor of that Maharajah—the present young Maharajah of Vizianagram—who was recently among us, and who delights in supporting and strengthening the good work of his predecessor in all its branches. One of the choicest blessings, drawn from the Shastras, and which a pious Aryan to this day offers to a great man, is, “May you have a son even surpassing yourself in wisdom and virtue.” In the instance of the Maharajah of Vizianagram, this blessing appears happily realized. It is not enough to liberally grant funds for public objects. Much judgment is required to ensure the proper application of those funds—to ensure the successful accomplishment of those objects. That that important faculty has been properly exercised in the present instance is proved by the fact that the Maharajah of Vizianagram has been pleased to place these Girls’ Schools under the management of the Madras Branch of the National Indian Association. This is a very wise arrangement. The Committee of that Association, which actually manages these institutions, abundantly embraces the various elements of intelligence, experience, influence and earnestness. A more efficient combination for the purpose in view would be difficult to suggest. And I am glad to observe that the Managing Committee is a happy mixture of Natives and Europeans. Another pleasing and encouraging feature I have to notice is, that so many European ladies of culture and position, besides European gentlemen, feel and manifest a warm interest in the progress of these Schools. The attendance at this moment in this Hall bears sufficient testimony in this respect. This is an additional guarantee of success. I am here reminded that on the occasion of the last anniversary meeting Mrs. Carmichael presided; had that good lady been in Madras she would assuredly have graced this meeting with her presence. As if to compensate us for Mrs. Carmichael’s absence, you, Madam, have most kindly taken her place

to-day. I feel sure that your condescension in taking the chair on this occasion will bear fruit beyond the limits of your stay in Madras.

Ladies and gentlemen, it cannot be a matter of surprise that the native community in general, nowadays, give their sincere sympathy and support to the cause of female education. As the education of men advances, a demand for the education of women must follow as a natural sequence. Educated native gentlemen would certainly like to have educated native wives, provided, however, that as a rule the wife's education is kept in due subordination to that of the husband. I mention the proviso merely to indicate the present comparative limit of demand for native female education. Even a Bachelor of Arts would not think it necessary for his happiness that when he returns home after hard work his wife should be ready with half-a-dozen quadratic equations! In this view of the matter, I am glad to observe that the managers of these Girls' Schools are content with a moderate standard of education. It is right and proper that instruction should be conveyed to the girls through their vernaculars. The time and trouble required to master a difficult foreign language are thus saved, and this is a great advantage, considering that the period of the school-going age of our girls is limited to about three years. Reading, writing, arithmetic, geography, poetry, needlework, music and general morality constitute a very fair average for the great mass of our girls. I would add a small and simple tract conveying instruction on miscellaneous matters bearing upon domestic health, comfort and happiness. To go through such a moderate programme about three years will suffice, if the teaching agency is efficient enough; for our girls possess remarkable receptive powers, and they learn with greater pleasure than boys do. When the girls carry away from the school the amount of knowledge above indicated, they are sure, not only to retain the same, but to add to it in process of time. The impulse imparted at school does not cease on leaving school; on the contrary, it gathers strength. School education indeed ends, but self-education begins. Vernacular publications being cheap, books are bought and read. And even newspapers are regularly perused. In short, once a taste for knowledge is fairly established, it strengthens itself and grows apace. All this is not a mere matter of speculation.

It is a matter of actual experience. I am glad I am in a position to quote my own experience in this respect. I venture to quote—not from any spirit of egotism—but because it may have some interest on this occasion, and may operate in the character of an example to some of my countrymen. I have six daughters, all of whom were educated more or less to the extent I have indicated. Their literary taste has since considerably developed, and I find that they lay out much of their leisure in useful and interesting reading. Good by nature, they are all the better for the advantage of education. They are answering to various requirements of their position in an admirable manner. They create happiness, they enjoy it, they confer it. They are the pride of their mother, who has set before them a very high ideal. In the various relations of daughter, sister, wife and mother, they are acquitting themselves in an exemplary manner. It remains for them to pass a higher test, that of a good mother-in-law; I am sanguine that they will successfully pass this most difficult test also. A great poet has said, “An honest man is the noblest work of God.” The next noblest work perhaps is—a kind mother-in-law! Another encouraging fact to be noted is, that the good done to the girl at school rapidly extends beyond herself. When she becomes a mother, she is sure to betake a keen interest in the education of her girls, and hence this second generation of girls will progress more rapidly than the first. I find this also realized in my own family. But I will give you a more conspicuous illustration. There is Her Highness the Maha Rani Jamna Bayi of Baroda, Companion of the Order of the Crown of India—the adoptive mother of the reigning Gaekwar of that important native State. I cannot mention the name of this eminent lady without recalling a train of the most pleasant associations of my Baroda life. I had the privilege of seeing Her Highness often, and of holding long and easy conversations with her on various topics. Her talents and acquirements, her sound sense, her sagacity, her good temper, her exquisite sensibility, and her refined manners inspired me with high respect and esteem. Had it not been for her steady sympathy and support as the head of the Gaekwar house, my administration of the Baroda State, during the minority of the Maharajah, would have proved much more difficult than it did. Well, Her Highness has an only daughter—a most interesting girl, beaming with

beauty and intelligence. This little Princess's name is Tara. It is a singularly appropriate name, for Tara means 'a star.' And truly is she the star of that princely family. Now just mark what has happened. The mother, being herself educated, gave very early and very earnest attention to the education of the daughter. It was not at all the result of external pressure or even persuasion. It was a spontaneous movement from the zenana itself. I watched little Tara's rapid progress in her studies with equal surprise and pleasure. The proud mother used to invite the Agent to the Governor-General and myself at intervals to examine the young Princess, and we found the daughter already in a fair way of surpassing her mother in respect to regular education. If time permitted, I should point to other examples of fairly educated Maha Ranis. One of these, I can assure you, largely and beneficially assists her Royal husband in the administration of his principality. But the limit prescribed to this address does not permit of my dwelling longer on this part of the subject.

Ladies and gentlemen, you will thus mark with pleasure that native female education has already made progress, not unsatisfactorily in the situation and circumstances. It is gratifying to note also that the more advanced Native States are fast following the example of British India in this department of education. Altogether, therefore, the prospect before us in this field is cheering in a high degree. And this may be predicated with all the greater confidence, because the excellent recommendations made by the Education Commission in their Report, just issued, are calculated to give a fresh impulse to progress in this direction. Just one remark more before I conclude. In every movement concerning the amelioration of our women we should always remember that their present situation and circumstances are the outcome of a long and almost incalculable past. Every woman is what she has been moulded into by influences which have been in operation through unnumbered generations—generations not of savage but of civilized life. When millions of men and women have lived and died through thousands of years with the natural wish to make themselves happy, it may be generally presumed that their mutual relations have been settled in a manner pretty satisfactory to themselves. I mention this, not as an argument against progressive improvement, but as a reason for careful and cautious procedure. All rude

or violent changes in this respect are to be deprecated. And whatever changes are to be gradually wrought as they are distinctly felt to be necessary, let there be no risk whatever incurred of weakening in the slightest degree those cardinal virtues which our women have inherited, such as genuine piety, devotion to the husband, affection for children, sympathy for poor or distressed relations, general charity, gentleness, modesty, submission and forbearance. If I should unfortunately come across any highly educated native lady in whom these substantial virtues have declined or perished, I should feel strongly tempted to address her in the language of Dr. Johnson, and say to her, "Madam, much trouble seems to have been taken with your education, for Nature could not have made you so bad!"

Mrs. Grant Duff then distributed the prizes, and congratulated the children on the progress they had made during the year. She hoped that as children they would be dutiful to their parents, and as wives and mothers that they would remember their duty to their husbands, and set a good example to their children.

The meeting terminated with a vote of thanks to Mrs. Grant Duff for kindly presiding on the occasion.

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EXHIBITION OF NEEDLEWORK, MADRAS.

(The following account of the Exhibition is from the Madras Mail.)

The Third Annual Needlework Exhibition held by the Local Branch of the National Indian Association was opened by Mrs. Sullivan, in the College Hall, on Wednesday afternoon, February 6th, at four o'clock. It was attended by a number of ladies and gentlemen interested in the work of the Association, whose object is (as is well known to most residents in Madras) to encourage the education and social improvement of the women of India. The quantity of work sent for competition this year is not so large as on former occasions, but there is a decided improvement in the quality. In addition to the needlework, a number of valuable shawls and cloths of Indian workmanship were shown, the property of native

gentlemen, who have kindly lent them for the occasion ; also work by the Ranis of Travancore, Mrs. Firth's Schools, and the Mahomedan Girls' School, C.E.L.M.S. The following is a list of prizes, with the names of the successful competitors :—

CLASS I.—Prize (to Native lady) for Native garments, zenana pupil, Scottish Ladies' Association. 1st prize to Girls' School, Government Girls' School, Mulapett, Nellore.

CLASS II.—1st prize, to zenana pupil, Church of England Mission ; 1st prize (School) H.H. the Maharajah of Vizianagram's Girls' School, Mylapore. Extra prize, Nabobpet Municipal Girls' School, Nellore. Mr. Bashiam Iyengar's prize.

CLASS III.—Best collection of English garments. 1st prize, Wesleyan Mission Girls' Boarding School, Royapettah ; 2nd prize, the Maharajah of Vizianagram's Girls' School, Chintadrepettah.

CLASS IV.—1st prize, zenana pupil, Scottish Ladies' Mission ; 1st prize, Hobart School, Madras.

CLASS V.—Crewel-work. 1st prize, zenana pupil, Scottish Ladies' Association ; 1st prize, Hobart School (Table-cloth in crewels).

CLASS VI.—Not competed.

CLASS VII.—1st prize, zenana pupil, Scottish Ladies' Association ; 1st prize, given by Mrs. Muttusawmy Aiyar, Muteyalapett Caste Girls' School, Madras.

CLASS VIII.—1st prize, zenana pupil, Scottish Ladies' Association ; 1st prize, Wesleyan Mission Boarding School, Royapettah.

CLASS IX.—1st prize, Edeyengudi School, Tinnevely.

CLASS X.—1st prize, S.P.G. Training School, Trichinopoly ; 1st prize, zenana pupil Scottish Ladies' Association.

EXTRA PRIZES.

CLASS I.—Native garments. (1) S.P.G. Training School, Trichinopoly ; given by Mrs. Ramasawmy Moodelly.

CLASS II.—Darning on net, H.H. Maharajah of Vizianagram's Girls' School, Mylapore ; given by Mrs. Bliss.

(3) Pulkhari curtain, Hobart School, N.I.A.

CLASS V.—(4) 1st, crewel on Native woman's jacket, pupil of Home Education, N.I.A.

(5) Two cushions in Berlin wool, zenana pupil, Scottish Ladies' Association.

(6) Pieces crewel-work, Malayalam Church of England Girls' School, Trevandrum.

(7) Three sets of ecclesiastical garments, Convent of our Lady of Dolours, Trichinopoly. (8) Kindergarten work, H.H. the Maharajah of Vizianagram's Girls' Schools, Egmore; given by Mrs. Grigg. (9) Sampler, Zemindary Girls' School, Kimidy. (10) Indian embroidery, Wesleyan Mission B. School, Royapettah. (11) Indian embroidery on Saree, pupil (Native lady) Home Education, N.I.A.; given by Lady Madhava Row. (12) German embroidery on antimacassar by a Native lady, N.I.A.

ON FEMALE EDUCATION AND WIDOWS IN THE PANJAB.

The following extracts from Dr. Leitner's Report on Indigenous Education in the Panjab gives, on the whole, an encouraging view of the state of education among native ladies and of the condition of widows in that part of India.

Indigenous Female Education in the Panjab requires less development than revival. The girl who was ever taught to read Nagri, or Gurmukhi, or Arabic in her home or in a friend's house, conveniently situated where other girls could also assemble, now has a brother at a Government School reading Urdu and becoming daily more dissociated from her in language and feeling. The mother also, for the same reason, cannot co-operate with the teacher, whilst the boys sneer at what they see at home in a speech which is almost unintelligible to her. For even the Hindustani-speaking mother has a dialect which is not that of her son. The spirit of disbelief also imported from the Government School is a source of great sorrow to her, and adds to the deteriorating influences of a climate and of homes in which passions can only be restrained by the rigorous observance of conventionalities and the minute practice of religious ceremonies which the Hindu lawgiver and native society in all Indian communities so wisely enforce. Though the Panjab has ever been more liberal in religion and manners than the impenetrable North-Western provinces, where Hindus and Muhammadans vie with one another in conservatism, yet the son or brother who would blaspheme the household god would pass a *mauvais quart d'heure* with his family, even if the Panjabi mother did not slap with her slipper the mouth of the

young demagogue who perhaps an hour before had denounced the brutality of British rule and deplored the ignorance of his countrymen to a sympathetic audience. It is therefore not unnatural that he should desire to spread Female Education in a sense that will provide him with a more congenial home than he enjoys at present.

The Panjabi woman has, however, not only been always more or less educated herself, but she has also been an educator of others. In Delhi, for instance, we find that before the annexation of the Panjab six *public* schools for girls were kept by Panjabi women, who had emigrated to the south for this purpose.

In other places, similarly, Panjabi women were to be found as teachers, just as the Guru or the Padha spread his instruction beyond the precincts of a province where he was becoming a drug in the market. Among Muhammadans very many widows considered it a sacred duty to teach girls to read the Koran; and though Delhi, like the rest of the North-Western provinces, was far behind the Panjab in Female Education, we find that it had in 1845 numerous schools for girls kept in private houses.

For the native girl is even more intelligent and enquiring than her brother, and few were the families in which the father, brother or mother did not take a pride in teaching the younger female members to read; there the education stopped short in theory, but the timid little girl would nestle up to her brother and imitate his writing till she became fairly proficient in that accomplishment, though female self-respect forbids its being acknowledged. That nine-tenths of the educated natives are alleged to be averse to female education can only be true if among educated natives both the old and the new schools are included. Even in the latter I doubt whether any one whose power of reflection has not been destroyed by thinking in a foreign language would willingly sanction a too sudden departure from the old lines on which indigenous Female Education has hitherto proceeded.

In the Hindu higher classes both the parents were enjoined to instruct their children, including daughters, in their religious duties. The greatest respect to the mother and to the elder sister is distinctly laid down in the rules for the conduct of students. Among Muhammadans nearly all girls were taught the Koran; nor could a Sikh woman claim the title and privileges of a "learner" unless she was able to read the Granth. The knowledge therefore of her religious duties, imparted in numerous little treatises and in some of the sacred texts, and illustrated by stories of deities, saints and prophets, was deemed to be sufficient for one who had the duties of a

household to learn, which, besides sewing and cooking, included the art of embroidery and the keeping of accounts in an elementary and sometimes very primitive form. Yet we find that there were many women, especially in the Panjab, whose influence in the State could not be ignored, whilst poetesses were by no means scarce, especially in the higher Muhammadan families.

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There is a great deal of exaggeration about the hardships, if not cruelties, to which widows are subjected. As a rule, women in all countries can take care of themselves, and interweave the interests of others with their own. The sight of a widow ready to burst into tears may grow to be trying to her surroundings; or, if poor, she may wish to make herself useful to the rest by working for them or rendering such other services as women discharge in most native households. It may also be disagreeable to her to have to defer to the wishes, if not whims, of younger married women in her adopted family.

A portion of the male community is, however, pecuniarily interested in the widow question. Just as passing the Entrance, F.A., B.A. and M.A. examinations raises the value of the bridegroom in certain castes in the matrimonial market, so would many an aspiring regenerator of his country wish to take care of the *peculium* of the widow to which I have referred, by rescuing her from the cheerlessness of a home no longer her own, even should she be staying with her parents. Probably, many widows would not object to re-marriage; but I doubt whether the signatures to a memorial to Government, purporting to emanate from a number of widows, were genuine. If so, this circumstance would show that they could write, and that they had probably also read the memorial—evidences of the extent of indigenous Female Education. It would be well to know to what caste these widows belong, and whether they would object to marry a man of an inferior caste, or indeed of a superior one; for all castes are now jealous of intrusion from both above and below. * * * *

Be that as it may, the lot of a poor widow is sad enough in all countries to deserve sympathy; but it is minimised in India by the following considerations:—

1. The widows of Muhammadans, of Sikhs, of most of the hill tribes, and of nearly all the lower Hindu castes *do* marry; and the widows of Jats are *bound* to marry their deceased husband's brother, for the protection of the inheritance.
2. The widows who have grown-up sons, or whose age entitles them to have a voice in the management of the

household, practically, and in numerous cases admittedly, rule it.

3. There therefore only remains a comparatively small number of widows in the higher and middle Hindu castes, and among them only those are to be pitied who are poor, or who have unfeeling or no relatives—a rare circumstance.
4. The misfortune of these, however, is alleviated by (a) the ideal of the sacredness of the marriage tie; the hope of rejoining the husband, and being made worthy of his regard in proportion to her generally self-inflicted privations—such as sleeping on the floor instead of on a charpoy. It is here where religion strengthens and raises the character of a noble-minded Hindu widow; (b) the social consideration which is given to a widow who by her acts shows her undying grief for her deceased husband; (c) the sympathy of her own family, to which she in many instances returns; (d) the generally liberal provision for life that has been made for her on the 13th day, which relieves her, at any rate, from the most gnawing cares, and allows her to address herself to the education of her children, if any.

Laborare et orare is therefore the well-bred widow's remaining aim in a not ignoble life, and, though she may have occasional misgivings, a high hope sustains her, and is an example to her more restless or less religious sisters in misfortune.

That the lofty conception of matrimony among Hindus has not been without effect may be inferred from the fact that most respectable and wealthy Muhammadans in India marry only one wife, whereas in other Muhammadan countries nearly all who can afford it exceed that number. Similarly, the Muhammadan system of the veil, curtain, or "purdah" has not altogether disadvantageously affected the Hindu wife; for, if the statement of Greek authors be trusted, the women in the Panjab enjoyed a liberty which sometimes bordered on license.

The case of child-widows however, in the better castes, is pitiable, and it is for them that relief may be obtained, by a judicious promulgation of certain relaxations allowed by their religion and tradition; but this can only be done by receiving the co-operation of Brahmins, though not for the marriage of the child-widows of their own caste, who may either be trained as teachers or represent the class of nuns in Tibet, Ladak, Spiti and other neighbouring countries, not to speak of nuns in Roman Catholic Europe. Indeed, it is doubtful whether the number of

child-widows in India who cannot marry exceeds in proportion that of the nuns in the countries which I have mentioned.

The cruelty of enforced widowhood may be educationally utilized by appointing widows who can already read as teachers of girls, visiting them in their own homes, or by training them for that profession. Among Muhammadans and Sikhs I do not apprehend that there will be much difficulty in securing a supply that will exceed the demand. Among Hindus also, with the co-operation of the Brahmins, objections against the above plan will also gradually disappear. The best means however for spreading Female Education in a manner welcome to native ideas is, to employ the Maulvis, Pandits and Bhais for male teaching, and their wives or sometimes elder sisters for female teaching. This will induce the priestly classes to attend more than they have hitherto to the education of their female relatives, an example which is sure to be followed by the other classes or castes. The present obstacles to female instruction will then disappear as if by magic, and a field will be prepared for the philanthropic labours of those who wish to impart a still higher education to the women of this country. * * * * *

If, in co-operation with the priestly classes, the wives of European and native officials would concert measures for imparting *secular* instruction to native girls, visiting them in their homes, they would, more than by the example of their domestic virtues, kindle the flame of sympathy between the rulers and the ruled, whilst providing themselves with an employment that would relieve the monotony of station life, and that would be greatly conducive to the preservation of their health and spirits. Just as many missionary ladies assist their husbands in a noble task, I see no reason why the official's wife should not be a helpmeet to him in his great undertaking of identifying the interests and feelings of the people with the maintenance of a wise and liberal Government.

That native households are not invariably centres of frivolity or domestic tyranny may be inferred from Mrs. Hossain Ali's spirited and detailed description of "Home-rule" in Upper India, the sceptre of which is often wielded by the gentler sex. Household cares, the troubles of friends, embroidery, sewing, spinning, listening to the professional story-teller or songstress, or to the preaching of pious women, the recitations from sacred books, fill their time and supply the place of going to parties, to church, or to a concert. The Rev. Lal Behari Dey, in an article just reprinted in the "*Selections from the Calcutta Review*," says:—"People at home, ignorant of Hindu manners, have a notion that Hindu females, like negro slaves, are doomed to unrelenting servitude. That women in India do not attain to

that state in society which they do in Europe is unquestionable ; but that they are viewed here in the light of slaves, cattle and household property is not true." He then passingly refers to the juvenile plays of girls—their *Dolls*, *Bow-bows*, in which the mysteries of marriage are emblematically represented ; *Hide-and-seek* ; *Tilkuti*, in which the dexterity of fingers is exhibited ; "that large class of plays in which the recitation of doggerel verses forms a principal part"—and gives an account of the women's daily occupations, of which we quote the following :— "The males are feasted first, on whom their wives and mothers attend. Attendance at the table is not regarded by the Bengalis as a servile occupation, that office being usually performed by elderly matrons and Brahmins." He then mentions some of their games, such as *ashti-kusti*, not unlike backgammon played by four persons ; *Mongul Patan*, not unlike draughts, representing a mimic battle between the Moguls and the Patans ; *Baghbundi*, or tiger hunt, not unlike the fortress game in Germany, &c., &c. Of course, amusements vary with the women of different castes, sects and classes ; but few can have heard the light-hearted song over their work beyond the walls of a native house and imagine that its inmates were slaves. Women will also attend the recitations of a famous Pandit, though this is not often the case. On festivals and occasions of rejoicings, such as marriages and births, dancing women are called in ; but I think that enough has been said above to show that female life in the Panjab is not so hopeless and servile as it is perhaps imagined to be.

THE BETHUNE SCHOOL, CALCUTTA.

The annual Prize Distribution of the Bethune School, Calcutta, took place on March 6th. The large schoolroom was effectively decorated with flags and evergreens, and the whole scene must have been gay and animated. The Hon. Mr. Gibbs presided on the occasion, and there was a good attendance, including many English ladies. Among those present were, Sir Richard, Lady, and Miss Garth, Mrs. H. J. Reynolds, the Hon. Vishwanath Narayan Mandlik, Mr. A. W. Croft, the Rev. Mr. and Mrs. Gillan, Rev. K. S. and Mrs. Macdonald, Dr. Waldie, Dr. Kenneth Stuart, Mr. Abdur Rahman, Raja Harendra Krishna, Rai Bahadoor, Coomar Ramendra Krishna,

Dr. M. M. Bose, Baboo Protap Chunder Mazumdar, Baboo Omesh Chunder Dutt, &c.

The pupils at intervals played on the piano, violin, and *zeetar*, and sang some Bengali and English songs very creditably. The following Report was read by the Secretary, Mr. Manomohun Ghose:—

“There are at present on the rolls of the Bethune School 110 pupils, of whom 15 are boarders, and the rest day-scholars. As regards the number of pupils, there has been no appreciable change during the last six years; but a marked improvement has taken place, as regards the maximum age up to which Hindu girls are now permitted by their parents to continue their studies in the school. Although some of the boarders left the school during the last year, their places have been filled up by others recently admitted, and there is every reason to expect that the number of boarders will considerably increase when the additions to the present building, which have been recently sanctioned by the Government of Bengal, are completed. The progress made by the pupils of this institution has been, on the whole, very satisfactory during the past year. Of the three young ladies who went up for the first Examinations in Arts of the Calcutta University, Kamini Sen has passed in the Second, and Kumudini Khastogiri in the Third Division. Both these candidates took up mathematics instead of botany, which, as female candidates, they had the option of doing, and in this respect they laboured under considerable disadvantage; they also took up Sanskrit as their second language; and their success at the late University Examination therefore reflects great credit, not only upon themselves, but upon the lecturer and the pundits under whom they have studied. As regards the pupils of the Collegiate Classes, both Chundra Mukhi Bose and Kadumbini Bose have, after passing successfully the B.A. Examination, left this institution; and one of them, Miss Chundra Mukhi Bose, has recently passed the M.A. Examination of the Calcutta University, and the other has been married, and has joined the Medical College. In the School Department the result of the annual Examinations has been, on the whole, very satisfactory. One girl, Mrinalini, has recently passed the Middle Vernacular Scholarship Examination; and another, Jibunbala Ghose, has passed the Middle English Scholarship Examination. The Committee have had recently under their consideration the desirability of increasing the number of teachers for the School Classes, the present teaching staff being considered insufficient for the existing number of classes; and the Committee have decided upon

making a representation on the subject to the Government of Bengal. The Committee hope that within a very short time they will be in a position to appoint an additional female teacher for the school. The Committee have also decided upon appointing a drawing master, if a sufficient number of pupils should be found willing to learn drawing on payment of a small fee of Rs. 2 per month. The thanks of the Committee are due to Miss Lipscombe, the Lady Superintendent; Baboos Shashi Bhusan Datta and Doorga Das Dutta, Lecturers attached to the College Classes; as well as to Miss Lahiri, the Second Mistress, and Baboo Aditya Kumar Chatterji, Teacher, for the manner they have worked during the past year. The two Pundits also deserve special mention for the diligence with which they have discharged their duties."

After the Report had been read, the prizes were distributed by Mrs. Gibbs, and the Chairman made the following speech, which we take from the *Indian Daily News* :—

"Sir Richard Garth, Ladies and Gentlemen,—It has given Mrs. Gibbs and myself much pleasure to attend here this afternoon and become acquainted with this flourishing institution, and to find what good it is doing in the great cause of female education. Having been connected with the educational system in the Western Presidency for many years, I have watched with much interest the progress that female education has made generally throughout India. It commenced in most parts with schools founded by Missionaries. In Bombay these were first started in 1824, and remained under their charge until 1851, in which year the members of the Students' Literary and Scientific Institution—one of the original members of which I see present in the person of my old friend, the Honble. Rao Saheb Vishwanath Mandlik, who has lately joined the Legislative Council of India—took up the matter, and founded numerous girls' schools in the city of Bombay, where at the present time they do a great work in behalf of female education. Since then native gentlemen have come forward, and founded girls' schools in different cities, and we shall now find that there are few places in which there are not girls' schools in the Bombay Presidency. I have noticed these facts simply to show what can be done by natives themselves in this good cause. Here in Bengal, I believe, this school, founded by Mr. Drinkwater Bethune, and bearing his name, was the pioneer establishment for affording

education to the girls of the respectable families of the native community, and its history shows how great were the difficulties it has had from time to time to surmount. The great difficulty of religious teaching, though most carefully provided against by its founder, long rankled in the minds of parents, and kept them from taking advantage of its teaching. The experiment of confining it to Orthodox Hindus also failed, and I believe its present flourishing condition took its rise only from the vigorous reform introduced in 1876 by Sir Ashley Eden, then Lieutenant-Governor of Bengal. My late respected friend Miss Mary Carpenter's visits to this country did much to bring female education into prominent notice, and the efforts which she made have told for good, and the female population of India owe her memory a debt of deep gratitude. One of the principal points she insisted on was the necessity of establishing Normal Schools for the training of teachers for the female schools of the country, a point of the greatest importance, as the want of such an establishment had been found to tell greatly against the progress of these institutions. It would now appear that all the difficulties which have from time to time arisen to prevent the success of the great efforts made by Mr. Bethune and others to afford education to the female population of this Presidency, and which we read of in the earlier reports, are fading away, and I trust that the time is not far off when the educated youth of Bengal may all find educated helpmates for them; but to secure this greater exertions are required. We cannot expect the Bethune School alone to supply the demand which will be made; and I would, therefore, earnestly put it before the wealthy gentlemen of this Presidency, who are not slow in coming forward to support works of charity, to take every means in their power to extend female education. I trust it is not necessary for me, in this year of grace 1884, to urge its advantages in the manner in which it was the duty of those who thirty years ago presided at similar meetings to that we have the pleasure of attending to-day. All the native gentlemen I am addressing this afternoon belong, I conclude, to the educated classes, men who have largely participated in the means the British Government has placed before them to enable them to acquire that knowledge which a liberal education on Western principles alone can give. You doubtless all feel the incalculable value of what you have received.

Let me ask you whether you find in your homes that pleasure and consolation which you would find if your wives and sisters had also received some part of the like benefits which you have received yourselves; or do you find, on the other hand, a want, a great want, which drives you to spend your evenings elsewhere, in the society of those of your fellow-men whose minds are more in accord with your own? If you do, then it must, I think, come upon you with full force, how much better it will be if your daughters can be brought up so as to become helpmates for the rising generation of educated men, and so the family house may become a true home, adorned not only by domestic virtues, but by intellectual accomplishments. There is one other point very closely connected with the subject of female education which I think I ought not to pass over, and that is early marriages. So long as this baneful custom exists, girls are prohibited from having their minds enlightened by the benefits of education. No one who has had experience of the difficulties which have assailed the spread of female education in this country can have helped seeing how great a hindrance this foolish custom is. I see in some quarters it is being objected to rather loudly, so far as talk goes; but we have yet to see that general setting of the face against it which is required to put a stop to it. It is to the educated men that we must look to do this. If they refuse to let their sons take child-wives with unformed minds, the custom will be broken; and I trust that all of them who are interested in the Bethune School will do their utmost to assist in destroying this evil. The sooner we can count it as one of the barbarous customs of 'olden times' the better. Sir Richard, I congratulate you and the Committee on the success of the past year. That one of your former scholars has attained the degree of M.A. at the Calcutta University is indeed a matter to be proud of, and the steady progress others are making in the same course must be a cause of great satisfaction to you all, showing as it does that this school, under the able superintendence of Miss Lipscombe, is doing a good work, and one which will prove a blessing to the educated youth of Bengal. I again thank you for having given me the opportunity of being present to-day."

Sir Richard Garth having said a few words of thanks to Mr. and Mrs. Gibbs for attending, the proceedings were brought to a conclusion by the girls singing "God Save the Queen."

THE PUNJAB REST HOUSE, WOKING.

(From the "Times.")

We are able to announce that Dr. Leitner, the Principal of the Lahore Government College, has completed the purchase of the Royal Dramatic College at Maybury, for the purposes of an Oriental University, Museum, and free Guest House for natives of the East belonging to the better classes. . . . To prevent the necessity of loss of caste, which now deters our best Indian fellow-subjects from visiting the seat of the Empire, from learning the lessons of our civilization, if not faith, and, in short, from availing themselves of its culture, Dr. Leitner is making somewhat technical arrangements, both here and with one of the steamship companies, which will have the effect of preserving caste for those to whom it is an object to return to India with unimpaired influence among their fellow-countrymen. One wing of the Royal Dramatic College will be devoted to Hindoos and Sikhs, and the other to Mahomedans. Free quarters will be given, and each resident will be enabled, if so disposed, to cook his own food in accordance with national or caste usage. The expense of living will accordingly be small, while facilities for instruction will be afforded by various public institutions which are within easy reach of Waterloo Station, where the student arrives from Maybury in 37 minutes by the fast train, thus rivaling the rapidity of conveyance from a London suburb. As regards the Oriental University, we are informed in the programme that it will conduct the Oriental examinations of the Punjab University in Europe, just as some of the examinations of the University of London are conducted in several of the colonies, and that it is intended to form a link between European and Eastern Orientalists in the production of original and translated works, and in the prosecution of research. . . . As endowments come in it is proposed to found Oriental professorships, fellowships and scholarships, and to enable Europeans and others who prepare themselves for official, professional, and even mercantile careers in the East to study Oriental languages free of cost, as is already the case in France, at the Paris School of Living Oriental Languages. We trust that Dr. Leitner's scheme will receive every encouragement both from the learned public and the Government of this and every other country that takes an interest in the East.

MARRIAGE OF THE THAKORE SAIB OF WADHWAN.

We have received an interesting pamphlet, containing an account of the marriage, on Feb. 28th, of Raj Kumari Seetiumma, daughter of the Hon. Raja Gajapathi Rao, Member of the Legislative Council, Madras, with His Highness Daji Raj, Thakore, Saib of Wadwhan. The bridegroom belongs to a ruling race of Rajputs. He was educated at the Rajkumar College at Rajkote, and in 1881 was invested with the entire control of the Government of Wadwhan. Last year His Highness paid a visit of some months to Europe. He is said to take great personal interest in the affairs of his State. The bride is the elder daughter of the Hon. Raja Gajapathi Rao, and grandniece of Mr. G. L. Nursing Rao, who has taken the greatest pains to secure for her a good education, and has given her a munificent dowry. The young lady has for several years had the advantage of instruction from an English lady. Latterly Miss Bolland, who remained with her till her marriage, assisted her in her studies. The ceremonies at the "Mansion," Nungumbankum, Madras, on the occasion of the wedding, appear to have been grand and striking. A large party assembled, including several European ladies, friends of the bride, who were allowed to witness the interesting scene from the "upstairs verandah." A series of entertainments were given after the marriage, and large sums were bestowed in charities.

INDIAN INTELLIGENCE.

On the occasion of the departure of Professor and Mrs. Monier Williams for England, after their late visit to India, an evening party was given at the Framjee Cowasjee Institute, Bombay, by Mr. and Mrs. Madhavardas Raghunathdas. A large number of native ladies and gentlemen were present. Songs in Gujerati and Marathi, with pianoforte accompaniment, were sung by some Parsi and Hindu ladies. Pundit Shyamaji Krishnavarma, who was also on the point of leaving India, taking his wife with him, to return to Oxford, was present. The Hon. Mr. Budroodin Tyabjee expressed the welcome of all present to the Professor, and their sympathy with his efforts in establishing the Indian Institute at Oxford. Professor Monier

Williams in reply gave an account of the Institute, explaining that the chief object of his third visit to India had been to endeavour to induce the Government to found six scholarships of £200 a year each for deserving students from India, who will go through the Oxford University course under the direction of the Director of the Institute. The Professor read a letter which he had received from H.R.H. the Prince of Wales in approval of the scheme; and, referring to his visit to Calcutta, he added, "No sooner did Lord Ripon hear of my scholarship project, backed up as it was by several able letters written by some of my friends here, than he gave it his earnest attention. Nor was it long before he assured me of his entire sympathy and approval. I received also the most gratifying assurances of sympathy from Sir Auckland Colvin, the Hon. Mr. Gibbs, Sir Stuart Bayley, the Hon. Mr. Ilbert, and other members of the Executive Council. Suffice it to say that, after a long and careful deliberation, I laid my application before the Government, and I am happy now to be able to read you a telegram I have just received from a distinguished member of the Viceroy's Council (Sir Auckland Colvin):—'Despatch goes home by this mail, proposing the six scholarships.'" Professor Monier Williams mentioned also that Sir James Fergusson had expressed a kind interest in the proposed scholarship plan, and he ended by explaining that he hoped the Library and Museum would be extensive and a useful addition to the Institute.

The foundation-stone of the Bai Bhikhaiji, a new Parsi Girls' School at Bombay, was laid, on March 20th, by Mr. Framji Nusserwanji Patel, a gentleman who has largely exerted himself for the education of Parsi girls. We understand that Mr. Sorabjee Shapoorjee Bengalee has given Rs. 50,000 towards the building expense.

Mr. Jumabhoy Laljee and his brothers, Hajeebhoy and Abdullahoy, propose to build a hospital in Cutch, which will cost Rs. 10,000. The site has been granted by the Cutch State. The expenses incidental to working the hospital will also be borne by the State. The hospital will accommodate about twenty-five in-patients, besides affording relief to out-patients.

The Maratha gives the following paragraph:—

"We are glad to mention that Mr. Govind Baba Joshi, of Vasai, at present a servant of the Baroda State, has practically initiated the reform in our marriage system by giving his Kokanastha daughter to a Deshastha bridegroom. One practical reformer does more good than a thousand loud talkers."

The annual distribution of prizes to the pupils of the Entally Municipal Aided Girls' School, Calcutta, took place in March.

Mrs. Kenneth Stuart presided, and gave away the prizes, consisting of books and toys. The house was tastefully decorated with flags and foliage. This school stood first at the last Primary Scholarship Examination. It owes its existence to the exertions of Mrs. Murray, and to Baboo Koylas Chunder Ghosh, Honorary Secretary, and Baboo Abinas Chunder Roy, who have generously given the free use of a hall in their house for the school.

The annual *Conversazione* of the Mahomedan Literary Society took place with its usual success, owing to the unwearied efforts of Nawab Abdul Luteef Khan Bahadoor. H.E. the Viceroy, the Lieutenant-Governor, and the Commander-in-Chief were present, and, as before, a varied entertainment was carried out.

Mr. and Mrs. K. N. Kabrajee gave lately a musical *soirée* at the Framjee Cowasjee Institute, which was very successful. H.E. the Governor and Miss Fergusson were among the guests.

The *Indian Spectator* writes:—"The death of Professor K. L. Chhatre (of Poona) is a loss to science in India. Mr. Chhatre rose to the highest position in the service from a very humble beginning. He was one of the most notable representatives of the doctrine of self-help, and owed everything to his talents and industry. As a citizen Mr. Chhatre was ever to the fore in promoting schemes of public usefulness. The Maratha community lose in his death a member whose place will not be adequately filled."

The twentieth Annual Meeting of the Uttarpura Hitakari Sabha was presided over by the Hon. Dr. W. W. Hunter, and about 500 native gentlemen were present. The Chairman spoke with the greatest sympathy of the aims of the Society—"to educate the poor, to distribute medicine to the indigent sick, to support poor widows and orphans, to encourage female education." The latter is its main object, and it has been most energetically carried out by means of graded Examinations and Scholarships, &c. One-third of the last year's candidates were married, who would probably, but for this Society, have ceased to pursue their education, and many young widows had been induced to study for the Examinations. Nearly fifty schools had been examined in the year.

PERSONAL INTELLIGENCE.

At the close of the opening term of the Royal Agricultural College, Cirencester, the diplomas and prizes, &c., were distributed by Colonel Kingscote, C.B., M.P. Mr. Giris Chandra

Bose, Bengal Scholar, was one of the successful candidates for the diploma. Mr. B. C. Basu, Bengal Scholar, and Mr. P. R. Mehta, received honourable mention. Mr. S. M. Hossain obtained Class Certificates of Honour in Chemistry, Veterinary, Bookkeeping and Levelling.

Mr. Dadoba J. Mantri, of the London Hospital, has passed the Primary Examination in Anatomy and Physiology of the Royal College of Surgeons of England.

Mr. E. Poonen, B.A., Madras, has passed the M.B. and C.M. Examination of the University of Aberdeen.

Mr. P. Parthasaradhi Chetti has passed the Second Professional M.B. and C.M. Examination of the University of Edinburgh.

Mr. Maneckjee B. Dadabhoy has joined the Middle Temple.

Mr. Dwarka Nath Ray has taken the diploma of M.D. in the New York Medical College. The following paragraph appeared in the *New York Tribune* of March 18th:—"The name of the young Hindu who graduated at the Homœopathic Medical College, on Thursday evening, should be printed Dwarkâ Nath Ray. He is a Brahmo. He obtained a diploma from an Allopathic College in England before studying in this country. Before he returns to India he intends to study in Germany; in the meanwhile he has been appointed on the staff of physicians at the New York Homœopathic Dispensary, where he will remain during the summer."

Arrivals.—Pundit Shyâmaji Krishnavarmâ, B.A. Oxford, and his wife, from Bombay (the first Gujerati lady who has visited England). Khan Bahadur Bomanjee Sorabjee, late Acting Professor of Mathematics in the College of Science, Poona. Mr. Maneckjee Byramjee Dadabhoy, from Bombay. Mr. B. J. Padsha and Mr. M. M. Chatterjee, from Bombay.

Departure.—Mrs. D. D. Cama, with son and daughter, for Bombay.

We acknowledge with thanks a Text-book of Deductive Logic for the use of Students, by P. K. Ray, D.Sc. (Lond. and Edin.), Professor of Logic and Philosophy, Dacca College. Calcutta, Thacker, Spink and Co., 1884.—A little Sketch-book of Literary Jottings, by Syud Abdur Rahman, Esq., Barrister-at-Law. Madras, 1883.—Regeneration of India, by Gopinath Sadashivji Hate, Dewan to the State of Palitana, Kathiawar. Bombay, 1883.

We regret that we are obliged, owing to press of matter, to omit the continuation of Shornalata.

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CHILD MARRIAGE IN INDIA.

A MEETING of the National Indian Association was held on Monday afternoon, May 5th, at the Council Room, Exeter Hall, Strand, presided over by Sir William Muir, K.C.S.I. A Paper was read by Mr. Narendra Nath Mitra, on "Child Marriage in India and its Remedy,"* and a useful discussion followed. Among those present on the occasion were Colonel R. M. Macdonald, Mr. C. R. Lindsay, Surgeon-General Balfour, Mr. J. B. Knight, C.I.E., and Mrs. Knight, Dr. Leitner, Mr. A. K. Settna, Major-General Waddington, Mr. Martin Wood, and others interested in this important subject.

The Chairman introduced Mr. Narendra Nath Mitra, who read the following Paper:—

Sir William Muir, Ladies and Gentlemen,—I crave your indulgence to listen to a few remarks, expressed in language feeble and imperfect, on a question of vital importance to the people of India, and which is one of the most interesting topics of debate among social reformers in that country. I think I may state, without fear of contradiction, that Indians in India are making rapid progress, morally and politically; but in my opinion they are not improving to the extent they should do. In order to prove this, I propose to point out some of the natural and social defects which stand in the way of our improvement, and to consider what are the duties of Government towards our

* The Paper had reference mainly to Hindus.]

countrymen, and how far the Government has fulfilled these duties. With regard to our defects, I am sorry to say we have so many that I despair of suggesting any effectual means of removing them. For instance, the people of the Bengal Presidency are physically weak. This is a defect which we may, at first sight, think cannot be removed by any exercise of human ingenuity. Nevertheless, I believe it can be partially removed by putting a stop to the growing evil of early marriage; and it is with the view of bringing this remedy for the physical degeneration of our race prominently before my countrymen that I venture to address you on this occasion.

Our people, whether Bengalee or of the N.W. Provinces, are very fond of enjoying "conjugal bliss." No matter whether a person is in a position to marry or not, he must marry. He is of opinion that marriage is a necessity, and says, "What is life without a wife?" and with a view to enjoy life he not only makes his life and that of his wife miserable, but that of his children too. But the enjoyment of conjugal bliss is not the sole aim of marriage. Orthodox Hindus think that unless they leave behind them sons who are capable of offering food to their deceased souls they can never reach heaven. People, not only in India, but all the world over, are very anxious to secure, by all means in their power, an entrance into heaven after death; and this would be a noble desire if they used the right means to attain salvation. Even in this country examples are not wanting where people commit direct outrages against the laws of the country under the influence of religious fanaticism. It is no wonder, therefore, that the people of India commit foolish acts under the influence of religious belief. I do not know whether our people got the idea from religion, or tradition, or popular belief; but an orthodox Hindu believes that the forgiveness of his sins depends on the performance of some religious ceremonies, and that his future happiness depends upon his leaving sons behind him. I have known persons coming to our house to beg some money, that they might get married. I used to ask them how they would support their wives. The answers which I received in all cases were the same; namely, that their present lives were most wretched; happiness was unknown to them, for they were terribly poor, but if they could leave sons behind them to offer food to their deceased souls in heaven, they would rest satisfied. You may ask, If their object in marrying is to leave sons after their death, why do they not marry later? Early marriage of males in India among the lower classes is entirely unknown. That evil afflicts the society of the rich and middle classes only. Rich persons do not care at what age they marry their children; for they know

they will have enough to live upon. Their motive for marrying their children is not a desire of appropriating the dowry or part thereof of the children; but their motive is, to form good connexion between their children and the relatives of the bridegrooms, so that they may help their children afterwards, if they require help. But that is not the sole aim; custom is the origin of early marriage. The middle classes marry their children early because they love the dowry; secondly, they like to observe the custom; and, thirdly, they are anxious to form good connexions, as the rich classes do. Early marriage is, as a rule, unknown to poor and lower classes of people. In their humble position in life they are guided by more refined rules in their social circles than we are. Their women enjoy the same amount of liberty as they do. Young men choose their own wives; and soon after their marriage they live separately from their parents; in no case do they remain as a burden to their parents, like the rich and the middle classes, after they are married. Though custom is the origin of early marriage, there are some minor points which must not be overlooked; for example, a mother marries her son with a view to cherish her daughter-in-law, and to exchange presents with the parents of her daughter-in-law. The Brahmins, or the priestly caste, are also active agents in bringing about marriages, and they do it from interested motives; for they receive money and presents as remuneration for their services in performing the religious ceremonies. I may add here that some parents marry their children from the best of motives. They *bonâ fide* believe that it is impossible for bachelors to lead a virtuous life; so they marry their children, that they may not be led astray from virtue. In our country misconduct of a man or of a woman is the greatest sin; therefore, they feel it a duty to prevent young persons from committing misconduct by all possible means.

Early marriage is the greatest curse in our society. We have seen students full of energy, full of enthusiasm in public movements, ready to sacrifice all they possess for the benefit of the public. But what are their physical and mental conditions after they are married? The student who was before his marriage a strong advocate of improving the condition of the people and for establishing reforms; who was most eager to remove the social anomalies with which our society is heavily clogged; who used to take a prominent part in getting up public meetings, and who delivered vigorous speeches for the redress of various grievances; who boldly pointed out the defects in the administration of public affairs, has now become altogether spiritless, after enjoying two or

three years of conjugal bliss! He now laughs at the idea of politics. He thinks all effort for social regeneration, or for removing of political grievances, a farce. He thinks now that his past life was a life of juvenile blunders, and his aspirations were vain shadows. His highest aim in life now is, to secure for himself a clerkship of 25 Rs. per month, so that he may provide food for his wife and children. The people of India fail to attain redress of their grievances from half-heartedness; and that is again due mainly to early marriage, which is the chief cause of failure in all attempts for the social regeneration of our society.

Ladies and gentlemen, there is another important phase of the question. Trades and manufactures are comparatively little known and practised among our people, and you know they are the chief means of enriching a country. In India, more than half the population are terribly poor; less than one-twentieth of the population are rich; the rest form the middle and lower class; a great majority of the population living in dire poverty. And what is the cause of it? One, if not the chief cause, is the neglect of manufactures and commerce. The people of our country will never prosper until they realize the value of the raw material which the country produces in such rich abundance, and learn the various processes of manufacture by which they are converted into marketable commodities. But how are they to learn in the absence of any institution for that purpose? But even if the means of teaching were provided, the people are hardly in a position to take advantage of them, for they are in immediate need of an income; owing to their early marriages, they are physically worse on that account, and they cannot spare the time to learn any profession which requires long application. You may ask whose fault it is that there are no institutions in India for teaching practical work, the Government's or ours? I am of opinion that the fault is mostly ours and partly that of the Government. In Bengal, a country which is three times the size of the United Kingdom, there is but one Government institution for instruction in practical works. I was told by some friends of mine that the rules of that place were so stringent that they were meant practically to exclude all the native students from the benefits of its instruction.* I wish I could see any prospect of my own countrymen coming forward to help themselves in the introduction of trades and manufactures without the help of the Government. But there are social evils to be removed ere much progress can be looked for; and I do not think that this

* We understand, however, that three-fourths of the students are natives.—ED.

can be accomplished without direct or indirect aid of the Government.

Our society in India is not in a position to make rules for the governing of all classes of people; and if it were, rules without coercive laws to back them would be inoperative. There are in India hundreds of castes, and each caste has practically, though not theoretically, its own religion. For instance, the customs which are observed by a *Kaesta* of one order as holy and sanctified by usage, are not observed by a *Kaesta* of another order, who regards them as unholy and irreligious. The difference between two different castes is so vast that I cannot in this short paper describe it. Therefore, it is impossible to prescribe rules for the governing of all classes in their social affairs which shall not touch the prejudice of one caste or the other. The difficulty can be solved only by the interference of the Government. I will now try to show in what way this interference may be effected with advantage. In my opinion we should ourselves establish institutions for instruction in scientific agriculture, manufactures, and mechanical arts. Let such institutions be for the unmarried only who are physically fit for work. In the present condition of things there would be few students for such institutions, for there are very few unmarried persons. In order to put a stop to early marriage we must seek aid from the Government. It is true the Government is pledged not to interfere with the religious or social customs of the people; but has it at the same time pledged itself to do nothing that is beneficial to the people? Certainly not. All that the Government has promised is, not to interfere with such of the religious or social customs of the natives of India as are not injurious to themselves. It would be absurd to say that the Government never interfered with our social customs. Infanticide and *suttee*, both of which were supposed to be religious customs, were put down by the strong hand of Government.

The conclusion, therefore, is, that the Government can interfere with such of our social or religious customs as are monstrously absurd and injurious to the community without breaking their pledge of religious neutrality. This can be easily understood by educated men, but to the masses it will not be clear; therefore, the Government should put a stop to early marriage by indirect means. The Government can, without the fear of wounding the feelings of the orthodox, enact that students under a certain age, if married, shall be excluded from the benefits of University examination. If this were done students would not marry until they had taken their degrees, and would be free, still unmarried, to enter institutions

for practical training. Early marriage is the strongest barrier in the way of improvement. Girls are married between ten and fourteen, and young men between eighteen and twenty. There is very little love-making in the marriages of our countrymen; they are married at an age when they can exercise no discretion in so important a step. Guardians find brides for the boys and husbands for the girls; and love comes, if at all, after marriage. I know hundreds of cases in which Brahmins have been ruined by the expenses attendant on marriage, and not only Brahmins, but people of other castes; and I doubt not that millions of rupees are thus spent annually with little benefit to the people, and none at all, either in this life or the next, to those who spend them.

The second bar to Indian progress is the caste system; it alone prevents our countrymen from uniting for their common good. I am happy to say that its power is rapidly declining. Educated and enlightened people have no respect for caste.

I am a Hindu Radical reformer. I know little of the customs of my Mohammedan fellow-countrymen. I hope some Mohammedan gentleman here will be good enough to enlighten us respecting them. In ancient times there were various castes, as there are now. People were more prosperous then, and some attribute that prosperity to the existence of caste, and say it was the cause of our ancient civilization. It is not, however, difficult to conceive that the system which promoted civilization in ancient times is now injurious to progress. Manu, the Hindu law-giver, framed laws suited to the requirements of an ancient people; but time and altered circumstances now demand the framing of new laws for the guidance of Hindus.

Those of our countrymen who have truly benefited by English education have no regard for caste. They most reluctantly observe some customs which they know to be absurd and injurious. They would, therefore, hail gladly any action on the part of the Government tending to put down some of their injurious customs. Such coercive measures would furnish our shy reformers with a pretext for renouncing those customs which they now lack the courage to abandon.

By the liberal and educated section of the community no opposition would be offered to such coercive measures. The Conservatives, the majority of whom are ignorant and unenlightened, might offer a feeble opposition; but should the Government, through fear of opposition from the ignorant population, give up the noble idea of doing good to millions of people who are anxiously waiting for such beneficial interference? That no formidable opposition is to be looked for even from the ignorant and unenlightened may be inferred from the fact

that no remonstrance was raised in India (except by a few Bengalee gentlemen) when *suttee* was put down.

"Roughly speaking," says our most esteemed countryman, Mr. Surendra Nath Banerjee, "England's duties to India are three; viz.: (1) To help towards the eradication of those evils which afflict Indian society; (2) to help in the formation of a manly, energetic, self-reliant Indian character; (3) to introduce the art of self-government in India."

I have already mentioned to you the two great social evils which afflict our society; viz., early marriage and the caste system; and the Government has taken no practical steps to remove those evils. It may be said that the Government has introduced the system of English education, and that it is thus creating a gradual revolution in our social circles, and that by this means in time the evils will be removed. But I ask, Should the Government depend only on indirect means, or should it not resort to direct and sure means?

Those who defend the Government for its non-interference with religion may say that the State has nothing to do with the Indian social questions. Well, I ask you, What is the policy of the State in this country? Does it not pay as much attention to social as to political questions? For instance, "The housing of the poor" is a purely social question; but the State is dealing with it in the same manner as if it had been a political question. Why, then, should not the Indian Government follow the example of the Home Government? It may be said that the people and the Government are two distinct bodies in India; in other words, that the Government of India does not take the same interest in the people of India that the Home Government takes in the people of England; that is, the Government of India has no sympathy with the people. Ladies and gentlemen, are you ready to accept this statement?

Some of my friends have remarked to me, that for the Government to interfere in our social customs, would be forcing civilization upon a nation. For the life of me I can see no reason why the Government should not do it. There is not a country on the face of the earth where the Government does not, either arbitrarily or with the consent of a majority of its people, frame laws for social as well as for political purposes. Why should India be an exception to this rule?

Now if, after having heard all my arguments, you still think that the Government should not interfere with the social customs of the people, I have to suggest an alternative measure against which there can be no reasonable objection. It is, that the Syndicates of the Calcutta and other Universities should make such rules as would exclude students who will

marry at an early age from the benefits of University examination. The Syndicate is a body of men composed of Government officials and private gentlemen. It is a sort of *quasi*-Government; therefore, the rules framed by the Syndicate are not made by Government. Any rule passed by the Syndicate for the students is something like a rule passed by the people at large.

I beg permission to repeat here that our countrymen are ripe for reform as to early marriage, but that no rules can be framed by them that shall suit all castes; and, therefore, coercive measures are needed to effect reforms. If, therefore, you think that Government should not interfere in this matter, I beg to submit the following suggestion:—That, in view of the growing evil of early marriage in India, the Syndicates of all the Universities in India should be moved to enact that students under the age of twenty-two who shall be married after the passing of this Act shall be excluded from the benefits of University examination, and that this rule shall come into force two years after it shall have been passed.

MR. LALMOHUN GHOSE opened the discussion by saying that he had listened with great interest to the Paper. It was a pleasant and welcome change to him to be now and again called away from stirring debates and to be able to take part in more peaceful discussions upon subjects as to which there was more or less agreement, and in discussions that were animated by kindly and friendly feelings. Nevertheless, he had his doubts as to how far the discussion of these purely social questions in England might be calculated to produce any very useful results. He did not in the least degree undervalue the importance of the sympathy of English friends. Genuine sympathy went a long way, and was to be distinguished from that verbal sympathy which in speech and print, under the pretence of lending a friendly hand, conveyed covert attacks on the people it pretended to befriend. He could, however, offer congratulations on the manner in which the subject had been introduced, because in dealing with even admitted evils in social customs it was necessary to remember when and how they had come into existence, and to have some regard to the traditions and prejudices of the people. These things had been kept well in mind by the lecturer. Quite apart from that, he was prepared to say that the subject was one the importance of which it was impossible to exaggerate. Looked at from whatever point of view, whether that of the social

reformer or that of the patriot, there was no other subject which more deserved the anxious consideration of the people of India. The only doubt he had as to the utility of such discussions in this country arose from a very strong conviction, that in regard to social reforms dependence must be placed mainly and almost wholly upon the people of India themselves. It was possible to go a little too fast, and to shock the feelings and prejudices of the less advanced among the people of India. There was a certain amount of Conservatism which the social reformer, no less than the political reformer, must always be prepared to deal with tenderly. An illustration was furnished by Isaac Walton's advice to the angler to put a live bait upon a hook tenderly and affectionately, as though he loved it. If care was taken not to shock the prejudices of the less advanced among the people of India by ill-considered and imprudent steps in the direction of social reforms, they would be achieved in course of time. But it was possible to retard them by incautious steps, which would array in opposition the conservative elements of the country. It was possible that mistakes might be committed by the less cautious among reformers which might have the effect of throwing the country back a quarter of a century. He could well conceive that in certain circumstances some of the more conservative elements of Hindoo society, some of his distinguished fellow-countrymen would feel inclined to say, almost in the words which Voltaire puts into the mouth of one of his heroes: "Ce sexe dangereux, qui veut tout asservir
S'il règne dans l'Europe, ici doit obéir."

He was anxious that they should not say so. For himself, he was of the mind, not of the hero of the poem, but rather of the captive lady who wished for a state of society in which woman should reign supreme:

"Compagnes d'un époux et reines en tous lieux."

These were his sentiments; and in seeking to give effect to them he was anxious not to shock the prejudices of the less advanced of his fellow-countrymen, but to carry them gradually with him in every effort. He could not coincide entirely with the views expressed as to the policy or desirability of the Government or the Legislature interfering; on that point he must differ from the author of the paper. But if the Universities could help the cause by some well-considered rules, he should

not object, because the rules would be made by an academic, and to some extent a popular body, which would be carrying out a popular wish. But he should be sorry to see the Government or the Legislature interfering in purely social matters, however much he might wish for reform. With these qualifications the paper deserved to be read and pondered by every well-wisher of India.

PANDIT BISHAN NARAYAN DAR referred to the motives which led to early marriages. He considered that these were, firstly, vanity on the part of parents; secondly, the gratification of the betrothed; and thirdly, social honours. He belonged to the class among whom early marriages prevailed, among whom boys and girls were married at the ages of five and six. These marriages were not arranged by parents, he thought, from any love for their children; very often they simply desired fame and social position. Sometimes hundreds and thousands of rupees were spent upon marriages, not with any view of doing good to the children, but simply that the parents may be talked of in their society, and that the people may honour them. In this way they seek to promote their own happiness, and they spend money which would be much better expended in the education of their children. This subject of early marriages had been again and again discussed in India; many lectures had been delivered upon it in almost every part of India; and, so far as he knew, the only answer which had come from the conservative members of society, from those who upheld the custom, was, firstly, that early marriages safeguarded the morals of the children, and secondly, that it was a religious command. As for the religious command he would not say anything about it, because the Association did not interfere with anything religious. As regarded safeguarding the morals of the children, that could be well discussed. He did not see that there was anything in early marriage which acted as a safety-valve for the morals of boys and girls. It was often the case that the subjects of these early marriages were very unhappy in after-life, and many evil results often followed to both boy and girl. The boy generally suffered ill-health; and marriage was often an obstacle to his future progress. A young man might wish to come to England to study law or medicine; but, if he were already yoked, he must either leave his wife or remain in India. There was another aspect of the matter which was worth con-

sideration. In their youth children were threatened by their parents that if they behaved badly, if they did not act in accordance with the wishes of their parents, the latter would not get them married. The threat was used when children were misbehaving themselves; the result was that when a boy was married he felt as if he were relieved from the risk of and the liability to a social punishment and disgrace; he thought he had attained a proper social position, which gave him the right to do anything he liked. This was often the case in the classes of society with whose customs he was conversant. The evil consequences of early marriage that were suffered by boys were also felt indirectly and in other forms by the girls. Then, especially in relation to their mothers-in-law, the position of the girls after marriage was a very delicate one. She had to please her husband on the one hand, and her mother-in-law on the other. When a boy of ten or twelve was married, and was dependent on his parents, prudence often dictated to the girl-wife that she should mind her mother-in-law rather than her husband; she often incurred hatred of her husband in order to please her mother-in-law, and even in that case it was seldom that the mother-in-law was pleased with the daughter-in-law. It would be difficult to imagine the misery that was due to the ill-treatment of daughters-in-law by mothers-in-law. The efforts to find a remedy, however, for these evils must come from within and not from without. The Government could have very little to do with social and domestic reforms. The natives of India must reform themselves. They knew their evils and their miseries better than the English people did; and it would be better that by independent self-help they should do all they could to remove those evils.

Mr. KRISHNALAL DATTA said the evil existed, and unless and until it could be removed nothing could be done for the material, social, moral, or political improvement of India. One of the causes of child marriage was the extreme poverty of the people, however strange this might appear. When a poor cultivator of the soil had an infant girl, he looked upon the child as a chattel to be sold; and he looked forward to the money to be obtained from the bridegroom, to furnish him with the means of obtaining implements, or whatever he might require, for the purposes of cultivation. This was a sad fact. In his own country (Bengal) the labouring classes were deplorably destitute, and they married their daughters because

they got money. He considered that any attempt to bring about change by legislation would probably retard social progress; but young natives who had obtained English education may do much in the matter.

Mr. LALLA PIYARE LAL said he was fully alive to the evils resulting from the custom of early marriage, and to the mischief wrought to India, which was thereby kept from taking its place among the civilised nations of the present day. The custom interfered with the progress of India, socially, morally, and intellectually; but for all that he was not for adopting harsh measures to restrict it. To invite the help of Government to put these customs down would create a revolution in Indian society. Native customs were sanctioned by religion, and this was the case with child marriage. Ideas of reform were entertained by young men who had received English education, and the number of such were very small at present, compared with the number of conservative gentlemen who cherished these customs as they cherished anything dear to them. Therefore to propose to effect an alteration through the action of the Government would be to create a serious disturbance in that class of persons. To ask the Syndicates of Universities to prevent married students going up for examination would be to punish one man for the guilt of another, because the students were not responsible for the marriages having been performed. A consequence of such a step would be to retard the progress of education, which was slow enough already; for out of one hundred students ninety would be married when they went up for examination, and if they could not present themselves they would not go on with their studies. Attempts to put down such customs must come from within.

Mr. ROSHAN LAL said he should like to appeal to the feelings of those who had been victimised by the custom of early marriages. Not the least sad result of early marriages was the number and the condition of widows. It was not uncommon to marry children at the early age of five. If the boy died soon after the marriage, the girl saw the parents weeping and tearing their hair. The poor innocent child did not realise the calamity that had befallen her. According to custom, they were obliged to strip her of jewels; the poor thing, thinking she had committed some crime, would ask, "What have I done, that you strip me of all my jewels which you gave me

recently ? ” and her pitiable condition would move the stoniest heart. As time passed she realised the truth, and her condition was the most miserable one could imagine. She was not allowed to remain at her parents ; she was obliged, when she came of age, to go to her mother-in-law, and she expected nothing but ill-treatment and cruelty. Believing the doctrine of the transmigration of souls, the mother-in-law reproaches the girl with being the cause of the death of her son, through her having done wrong in some past age ; and the poor thing is so affected by these reproaches that she must wish that the earth would open and swallow her up ! This was but a feeble statement of the truth of many a sad story, which would move all who could hear it to tears. He was only repeating what had been told him by those who had experienced these sufferings. Was it not the duty of the Government to stretch out a helping hand to those who were thus helpless and hopeless, whose voices were stifled within the walls of the zenana, where they were as birds in cages ? These might well say that it would have been better had *suttee* been continued, because in that case they would have suffered only a few minutes torture ; but now they were obliged to suffer through life a torture worse than death. There were those present who had witnessed this suffering, and who could confirm the truth of what he said. It was all very well to say that the interference of the Government would not lessen but would aggravate the evil ; but the uneducated masses of the people of India might be said to be believers in the divine right of the king, or the wisdom of authority ; and if legislation were proposed, and if it was found that it did not provoke the opposition of the enlightened men of the country, the people were perfectly ready to avail themselves of any plea for increasing the happiness of their children. The suffering widows could not understand how it was that they were governed by one of their own sex, who did not alter their condition. When *suttee* was abolished, it was not in the least authorised by the religious law ; none the less it was looked upon as a divine institution, just as child marriage is. Lord William Bentinck knew it was his duty not to allow widows to suffer death ; he was equal to the task, and abolished the custom ; he left it to his successors to do away with the evil results which followed its abolition. It was reasonably hoped that the Government would take some measures to ameliorate

the condition of widows. The people of India, as far as he was acquainted with their disposition, would not in the least oppose such a measure, because the ignorant masses practically believed in the divine right of the king, and the educated as a rule would sympathise with the object. The manner in which the people acquiesced in the abolition of *suttee* and of infanticide illustrated their confiding disposition in the divine right of the king or of the Government, and furnished reason for believing that they would readily acquiesce in the abolition of their bad social customs.

Mr. S. SARBADHICARY said that when he was at college there were a number of youths who were compelled to give up studies because their early marriage had deprived them of the means of continuing them. Pressure was put upon him by his parents to marry early, and to avoid that pressure he went to Calcutta, where he met with gentlemen who encouraged and assisted him. After that he left Bengal for the Punjab; there he maintained his position, and he was finally admitted into a Government School, and passed his examination. He condemned early marriages with all his heart; the custom of early marriage was one of the greatest drawbacks of India. There were many who on account of early marriage could not prosecute their studies as they ought to do. He wished something could be done in the way of prohibition. It was solely because he was not married that he was able to continue his studies under adverse circumstances, and to avail himself of the assistance of friends. There was a gentleman present (Dr. Leitner) to whom his thanks were due for the help he had received.

Surgeon-General BALFOUR called the attention of the meeting to the facts, in regard to widows in India, as shown by the census of 1881. There are nearly a million of widows and widowers in India, but far more widows than widowers; and one reason for this is, that Hindoos as a rule, and also Mahometans, object to the re-marrying of their widows. But another cause of the excess of widows arises from the Hindu practice of marrying infant girls to grown-up men, many of the men even far advanced in years. The census report shows that among the widowers and widows there were 24,000 boys and 78,000 girls under nine years of age; between ten and fourteen there were 75,000 boys and 207,000 girls; between fifteen and nineteen there were 131,000 males and

382,000 females. Altogether there were over 600,000 already widows who ought never to have been married. The publicity of these facts would assist in drawing attention to the subject. The population of British India, as shown by the census report, was 253,891,821; viz.: 129,941,851 males, and 123,949,970 females. The widowers were 5,691,937, and the widows 20,938,626. Up to the age of nineteen years the widowed state was as under:

0-9.		10-14.		15-19.	
Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.
24,773	78,976	75,296	207,388	131,875	382,736

Several of the gentlemen from India who have spoken have alluded to this infant marrying as a custom which the people have fallen into. No one has mentioned that it has been the result of the teaching by the brahmanical caste of a physiological doctrine, which, if honestly carried out, should induce them to have every widow re-married. Perhaps if these two points were made known to the people of India, the Hindus, at least, would cease to have infant marriages, and would encourage re-marriage. The aboriginal non-Aryan races have not followed the teaching of the Brahmans, and it is little creditable to Muhamnadans that they should have imitated the Brahmans in this very objectionable practice.

The Chairman (Sir WILLIAM MUIR) said he could not agree with Mr. Lalmohun Ghose in thinking that external help was of no avail in advancing the settlement in India of the subject under discussion. Advice and sympathy would not be without their effect upon the people of India. The sympathy of America even had been brought to bear usefully upon this deeply important question. Not long ago a body of American ladies, who had heard of the evils resulting from the custom of infant marriage in India, sent a petition on the subject to the Queen, which petition was duly presented to Her Majesty by the Secretary of State. But what could the Queen do? He knew that Her Majesty felt most deeply the evils resulting from the system of early marriages in India; but a feeling of personal sympathy was a very different matter from the interposition of Government prohibition in respect of these infant marriages. The analogies which had been

quoted of Suttee and Infanticide were quite wide of the mark. In those cases there was absolute murder, and therefore there was every justification for putting down such horrid rites by the iron hand of the law. But Government interference in a matter like that of early marriages was quite a different thing. Was the Government to make it penal for children to be betrothed in their early years; and if so, what penalty could they enforce? In social customs people would not brook interference beyond a certain point, and therefore it would be impossible at present to bring in any law for that purpose. Nor were the usages of long centuries to be rudely set aside by the criminal law. Public opinion must precede any penal provisions; and the efforts of reformers should be set to moulding public opinion upon a wholesome type. There was one thing, however, which the law might do, and that was to stipulate that betrothals made in tender years by third parties should not be enforced as contracts demanding specific performance unless there was a ratification of the betrothal by the principal contracting parties after they had arrived at maturer years. He would mention one case as showing the harsh operation of the law as it might be construed at present. In the district of Bijnore measures had been introduced by Government to check the custom of infanticide. There was one tribe in the Bijnore district which had abandoned the custom of infanticide, and would have no dealings with another tribe which continued it. To mark their sense of abhorrence at the custom, they refused to give their daughters in marriage to this other tribe. It so happened, however, that several betrothals had already taken place, and an action was brought to enforce specific performance of one of these by the third parties to the contract. The judge who tried the case—a native judge, he believed—felt himself bound to uphold the contract. The decision was ultimately overruled by the Superior Court, but still it was very sad that there should be a possibility of a contract entered into by third parties on behalf of infants being enforced at law. It might be possible now to modify the law in the way of requiring a further ratification of such contracts before they could be enforced in Courts of Justice. Anyhow, these were very delicate matters for the Legislature, or for any Government, whether native or English, to interfere with. What the opponents of the custom

of infant marriages should do was to try and move public opinion. They should not content themselves with haranguing audiences in England, but should also let it be known throughout the length and breadth of India how strongly they reprobated the custom, and how firmly they held the opinion that infant marriages enforced in maturer years were incompatible with justice, propriety, and matrimonial happiness. It was to public opinion that they must look for the remedy, and in these days public opinion moved so rapidly in India that they need not be disheartened in their attempts to eradicate the custom, notwithstanding the fact that it had taken such deep root. He had lately seen a remarkable monthly paper called the *Social Reformer and Marriage Advertiser*, published at Lahore, from which it appeared that widow marriage was on the increase, and that practical efforts were being made to weaken the sway of hurtful customs. The Chairman concluded by saying that he did not think the suggestion which had been put forward to debar all students who married before the age of twenty-two from the benefits of college examinations was a practical one. The reform must come from within,—from the people themselves. It might be slow, but it need not on that account be the less sure. Sudden social changes involved serious risks to the moral well-being of the people. Let those who advocated the change set the example themselves, and show in their own households the excellency of it, and so the reform would take root and spread. And he trusted that the present meeting would tend in that direction.

The proceedings terminated with a vote of thanks to the Chairman, moved by Colonel R. M. MACDONALD, seconded by Dr. LETTNER, and carried unanimously.

REPORT OF THE INDIAN EDUCATION COMMISSION CRITICISED.

There are two sides to every question, and one aspect from which the Report of the Indian Education Commission can be viewed has been admirably stated by Sir Alexander Arbuthnot in the last number of this *Journal*. It is, how-

ever, only fair that another view should now be given, ~~that~~ it may be seen how different minds regard the same set of facts. Sir Alexander Arbuthnot has looked at the matter from a Departmental point of view, and has shown the great work which has been accomplished by the Education Department in India. He is perfectly accurate in his statements. If we survey the labours of the Department we shall be astonished at the vast educational machinery it has called into existence, the energy with which it has worked, the number of children it instructs, and the quality of the education it gives. There can be no question that the mass of the officers in the Education Department are thoroughly able and earnest men, who administer the education policy of the Indian Government with praiseworthy diligence. It is the system which they may be heroically striving to administer which is open to question. That system has had a fair trial, and has been found wanting, because it is unnecessarily expensive and denationalizing. The result of the Anglicized instruction given has been to raise a host of semi-educated men, who are diverted from the proper industries of their country; and there being no occupation for so numerous a class in the present undeveloped state of India, they all look to Government employ for the means of subsistence. Only a limited number can obtain Government appointments, and still fewer can get the posts they think their talents deserve; the inevitable consequence is a wide-spread feeling of dissatisfaction, even amounting to disaffection. This is not a matter for argument; it is notorious, and has been long deplored. It was a recognition of this unsatisfactory state of the education question which led to the formation of the very Commission the Report of which I am about to comment on.

It has been long seen that the only fitting remedy for the present unlooked-for state of things is a wide extension of primary and secondary education, and the deepening and improving of high education among those who are likely to make any real use of it. No one has ever dreamt of reducing or throwing any obstacle in the way of high education; but many who have seriously reflected on the present condition of India have recognized the urgent need of raising the mass of the people a little nearer to the level of the institutions by which they are governed. The only reason ever assigned for not doing so is the expense of carrying it out; hence, the

real problem before the mind of educationists is, not the object to be achieved, but the way to achieve it. It is a question of money. The country cannot be more highly taxed for this purpose, either by an honest increase of the general revenue, or by the eye-darkening expedient of a local cess. The most expensive and least practically important portion of the present system is the superintending agency. It is obvious that the only use of Directorships and Inspectorships is, to see that the sums of money granted are properly expended. If the zeal, capacity, and honesty of every instructor could be implicitly relied on, the whole of that expensive machinery could be done away with, and the funds devoted to its maintenance would be liberated. The problem which the Commission had to discuss was, *How to alter, improve, and cheapen the present system, with the view of extending education without increasing the burdens of the people.* The Report when examined from this stand-point is dismally unsatisfying; and it is not too much to say that the Commissioners seem to have failed to recognize the real gist of the matter submitted to their deliberations. Of their Report, in this respect, it may with truth be said that "the mountains have laboured" with the proverbial result. The little mouse has come forth, after two years of prodigious "boil and bubble, toil and trouble;" and although, like the frog in the fable, it endeavours to inflate itself to bovine proportions, its real insignificance is painfully apparent to any one accustomed to plunge beneath the surface of a flood of words to extract the grain of practical wisdom which the torrent covers.

Let us see what has taken place. Twenty-two "wise men of the East" have been called together by the Indian Government to sit in judgment on the educational machinery of India, and to make suggestions for the wider spread of knowledge in that land "flowing with milk and honey." These Commissioners have had extraordinary powers conferred on them, in the exercise of which they have transferred their operations from place to place, and have summoned before themselves any whom they pleased to question and cross-question on all points connected with education. Two years of time have been spent upon the process, and a liberal purse has been freely indented upon. Now what has been produced in return for this labour and expense? Well; 716

pages of Report, and about 3,000 pages of evidence on which the Report is supposed to be founded. If the value were to be measured by bulk, there is some reason to be contented with the out-come, or, as miners would say, with the "out-put;" but if the standard of value is to be sought in the measure of improvement proposed, then we have good cause to express even angry discontent with the fragments of relief recommended by the Indian Education Commission.

The real pith of the Report, in a single sentence, is this, that higher education be handed over to the Universities, and lower education to Local Boards. In these recommendations I heartily concur with the Commissioners; and had they laid down these plain principles as a fundamental basis, and had they confined the rest of their Report to the practical details by which this wise policy could best be carried out, unstinted praise must have crowned their efforts. Unfortunately, however, the wisdom of giving increased power to the Universities, and of conferring a certain jurisdiction in elementary educational matters on Local Boards, seems to have been forced on unwilling ears, and was accepted only from the impossibility of ignoring the consentient demand of the evidence for something of the kind, and the desirability of suggesting some changes to justify the coming together of the Commission.

But these recommendations have this unpleasant consequence, that if higher education be handed over to the Universities and lower education to Local Committees, what becomes of the Education Department? "Othello's occupation's gone;" the Department has no longer a *raison d'être*, and should, as a corollary, cease to exist. But now comes the advantage of this "gift of words," these lengthy prosings, these sub-divisions, and arguments, and statements, and counter-statements, and exceptions, and limitations, and hopes, and fears, and details various and minute; all this niceness of discrimination and delicacy of manipulation is for the simple purpose of creating work for a Department the real use of which has passed away.

In truth it must be admitted that the constitution of the Commission did not favour any other result; and this is the only point to which I take exception in Sir Alexander Arbuthnot's paper. He is of opinion that "no exception can be taken to the composition of the Commission," whereas, to my conception, a more dexterously packed body could hardly

have been got together. Of the twenty-two gentlemen who composed it no less than *nine* are themselves officers of the Education Department; *five* others are Government officials, two of whom were formerly in that Department; while of the remaining *eight* quasi-independent members some were known supporters of things as they are, while others knew nothing at all on the subject. Thus it will be seen that the Department had at all times a good voting majority; there being fifteen or sixteen of the twenty-two who, from *esprit de corps* or natural inclination, might always be relied on to support Departmental ideas.

As it is given to few to be ambitious of self-effacement, the very constitution of the Commission saved the Department. With a candour which deserves commendation, the Commissioners tell us, on p. 317 of their Report, that four principal suggestions were pressed upon their notice by witnesses as the basis for real educational improvement. These four suggestions were—(1) that a Consulting Board be associated with the Director of Public Instruction in each province; (2) that a portion of the control in educational affairs be transferred to the Universities; (3) that a controlling power in such things be vested in District Boards; and (4) that the Provincial Directorships be abolished. It will be seen that in each case discontent with and distrust of the Education Department is openly expressed. The first suggestion is a proposal to watch the Department; the second and third suggest a curtailment of its influence; and the fourth boldly recommends its abolition. And this is how the Commissioners comment on these proposals:—

“Of these proposals the last two may be briefly dismissed. . . . The transfer of control to local bodies is discussed [elsewhere]. The *proposal to abolish the Provincial Directorships found no support in the Commission, and was not even suggested as a matter for discussion.* In fact our recommendations are based on the explicit assumption that the office and independent position of the Provincial Directors will be maintained; and throughout our Report we have laid stress on the necessity of allowing the widest discretion to Local Governments, and of avoiding any attempt to centralize educational administration.”

If this is not tantamount to the play of *Hamlet* with the part of “Hamlet” left out, I do not know what is. It is the Education Department, with its array of Inspectors, presided

over in each province by a Director, which now regulates and supervises all things connected with education, except the University courses. The Commission was at liberty to make any recommendation it pleased, and it found a concurrence of testimony as to the expensiveness and defectiveness of the Departmental system; and it received suggestions for the limitation or abolition of the Department's influence; but, instead of sitting in judgment on the evidence, a rule was laid down that the chief offender was to be beyond interference. The Directors and their administrative machinery were to be saved at all hazards; and so far from reducing the influence of the Department, the Commissioners propose to extend its operation by including in its grasp all the indigenous elementary schools which can be induced to accept a grant in aid of their resources.

The grave unfitness of the Department to regulate primary education may be demonstrated by one notable instance. The Commissioners themselves specially mention the Panjab, and this is what they say:—The Panjab is loud in complaints against the method of instruction in Departmental schools; there was formerly one school to every 1,700 people, there is now one to every 9,000; there was formerly a school in every village, there is now one recognized school in every 26½ villages; in 1869, 300 primary schools were abolished; there has been for years a gross abuse of the village cess; and, finally, the pithy statement, that in the Panjab mass education under the Department “has not succeeded.” (p. 107.)

Such is a sketch of the handicraft of the body to whose operations the Commissioners recommend to be consigned all the indigenous primary schools which have recently been discovered to have secretly survived the wreck of former times.

For fear it might be thought that the Panjab is exceptional in this respect, I hasten to add that the Report before me, after stating what the Commissioners had ascertained to have formerly existed in Bengal, the North-West Provinces, the Panjab, and the Central Provinces, thus summarizes the facts:—

“Every large Hindu village possessed a school of its own, and the foundation of a system of national education had, *long previous to British rule*, been laid by the spontaneous efforts of Hindu and Mohammedan society.” (p. 56.)

The Napoleonic *Nous avons changé tout cela* might, with bitter irony, be written over the Education Department; for even in the most favoured districts there now exists but one recognized school to every five villages, and in the worst, as we have seen, one school to 26½ villages.

The ready comment of the uninformed will be, "Ah! but these indigenous schools are worthless; it is only those of the Department which give any real education." Well, the Commissioners are good enough to give us their opinion on this point also, and this is what they say:—

"The instruction given in all classes of Hindu indigenous schools is so far practical that the Brahmans, and other high or literary castes, are taught the subjects which will qualify them either for the service of their religion, or for their future civil positions. The lower classes obtain such an instruction in elementary subjects of practical utility as is designed to qualify them for their several occupations in life, and serves also to protect them against unfair dealing. In particular, the study of mental arithmetic is carried to a high pitch of excellence." (p. 57.)

Would not any Inspector of Schools in England be much pleased to make a similar report on the elementary schools of his district? Let me go further, and ask whether there is a single Inspector of Schools in England who would venture to assert that in his district "the study of mental arithmetic is carried to a high pitch of excellence." And yet it is these very indigenous schools which the Commissioners wish to see placed under the control of those who would root up the system which produces such good results, and would replace it by one that is alien to the wishes of the people, that represses the subjects they love, and which is hopelessly inferior from even a merely instructional point of view!

But I have said that it is recommended that primary schools be placed under Local Boards, and the foregoing remarks may be thought to conflict with that statement; it is, therefore, needful to explain that the real duties prescribed for Local Boards are to raise money and to spend it, in certain ways, on certain schools, by direction of the Department. Executive functions alone will be theirs, the *dei majores* will continue to be the Provincial Directors and their assistants. Thus the Department simply shunts from its own shoulders the real duties, and the ever unpleasant monetary

arrangements, but retains the power of meddlesome interference with those who provide the funds and do the work. It is precisely this meddlesomeness which would ruin the national character of indigenous schools, and destroy the last chance of education ever becoming self-supporting in India. If the schools were simply left alone, they might live on in obscurity until awakening conscience returned to them the rent-free grants of land of which our early settlement officers stripped them. The system of money-payments for imparting knowledge is thoroughly repugnant to Hindu sentiment; the best and really conscientious men will not discredit themselves by receiving it. Knowledge is held to be too sacred a thing to barter for pelf; and, in deference to this opinion, the rulers whom the British superseded gave small patches of rent-free land in perpetuity to village instructors, on the proceeds of which, aided by voluntary presents, the schools were maintained in which education was given to all gratuitously. Arrangements should be made for the re-assigning plots of land for school purposes. Grants-in-aid could be given from general funds as part of the voluntary presents, which the most scrupulous could receive without loss of dignity. The revival of this ancient system is the reform really needed. It would win the gratitude of the people, it would be almost costless, it would admit of indefinite expansion, and it would be a really national, and probably in the end self-supporting, system.

Instead of frankly acknowledging the expensive mistake already committed, and abolishing the machinery which has wrought it, the Commission recommend that the last remnants of the national system shall be swept away by bringing under Anglicizing regulation the village schools which yet survive. The recommendations on indigenous and primary schools to which I particularly refer are those numbered 3, 4, 5, 6, 9, 10, 11, 14, 15, 32, and 36. It is impossible to quote them here at length; but to any one who refers to them it will be evident that the work reserved for the Department is of a purely obstructive and interfering character, from the reckless exercise of which every check is to be removed by allotting the task of providing the money and carrying out the details of the work to other bodies. It is certainly very dexterous to shunt one's duties on to others, while retaining the chief control oneself; but it requires something worse than dex-

terity to recommend, as the Commissioners do, "(16.) That the first charge on provincial funds assigned for primary education be the cost of its direction and inspection, and the provision of adequate normal schools." On p. 333 the Government is recommended to increase the inspecting staff, and to raise the pay of the officials; while p. 311 shows the necessity for reducing the period of service qualifying for pension.

When it is thus seen that, with respect to primary education, the decision of the Commissioners is to incite the Education Department to interfere with indigenous schools; to make the pay of its officers a first charge on local funds; to increase the number of its officers; to raise their pay, and to grant them earlier pensions; it will hardly be credited that the very existence of the Commission itself was due to the accumulating evidence of the grave unfitness of the Education Department for the work with which it is already entrusted. The rewards of success are to be conferred on that which is demonstrated to be a failure; and the burdensomeness of an administration which has been proved to cost *fifteen times* as much as the superior native method is to be materially increased, and to be made a first charge on the funds which should pay the real workers.

It is also to be observed that several vernacular newspapers have violently denounced the Report of the Commission, and have expressed a hope that Government will never adopt the Report in its present form. Gopinâth Sadâshiv, the author of a new book on the *Regeneration of India*, with more decorum, but no less plainly, asserts that "What we want in our present state of education is a number of schools, and a staff of efficient teachers, and *less of the costly supervision.*" It is thus clear that a number of Indians disapprove of the recommendations of the Commission.

Sir Alexander Arbuthnot looks at the present state of education in India apparently from Madras experience, without seeming to recognize the fact that there are two distinct systems in India, the one purely Departmental, the other based on a recognition of indigenous methods of instruction. It is the latter which is current throughout the Madras Presidency; and experience has there proved it to be far more beneficial than the Anglicizing method in vogue elsewhere. It is with the hope of bringing the Madras system

still further into harmony with indigenous methods, and extending it to the whole of India, that I now write. The comparison between the two methods is most instructive, and adds the crowning proof of satisfactory experience to the views I advocate. The Departmental system is in operation throughout Bombay, the North-West Provinces, the Panjab, the Central Provinces, Coorg, and the Assigned Districts of Haidarabad. The combined population of these districts is just under 100 millions. On the other hand, the system based on encouraging indigenous schools prevails in Madras, Bengal, and Assam; the combined population of which places is 105 millions. Thus the populations of the two areas are almost equal; but the results of the two systems are strikingly different. In the former area the total number of children under instruction in Departmental, Aided, and Unaided Schools combined, is 807,801; in the latter area, the number amounts to 1,476,807. Thus in populations almost equal the system which aids indigenous schools educates nearly twice the number of children as that which is conducted on Anglicizing principles.

After such a statement as the foregoing of the way in which the Commissioners propose to remedy the admitted defects of our present system of education, I would ask, Am I justified or not in expressing grave dissatisfaction with the Report they have issued?

FREDERIC PINCOTT.

SOCIAL AND PHILANTHROPIC INSTITUTIONS IN THE WEST.

VI.—‘THE STRANGERS’ HOME FOR ASIATICS, AFRICANS, AND SOUTH SEA ISLANDERS.

No lot in life is so sad as that of the man cast upon the shore of a strange land. If he has any valuables about him, he becomes generally an object of plunder; if he be penniless, he has the chance of starving. The danger is aggravated when the poor fellow is ignorant of the languages and customs of the people in whose midst he has fallen—perhaps a mariner, who has been paid off and turned out of his vessel; perhaps a domestic servant, who has been paid up his wages and suddenly discharged by a thoughtless employer.

To the port of London come vessels from every part of the world, and many hundreds land at the Docks under most unfavourable circumstances. Dissipation and profligacy, robbery and murder, have been the features in many a sad case.

Twenty-six years ago it was determined to start a Home for such strangers in the West India Dock Road, Limehouse, E.—a very long way off from civilised London, but there was no choice as to situation. It must necessarily be situated near the port, where crews were unshipped and shipped. Large sums were contributed, and a comfortable home erected. One worthy old soldier, Colonel R. M. Hughes, devoted himself for twenty years to this particular work, and it is mainly, to his unselfish and untiring labours that the institution owes its success. The total number registered in 1882 amounted to 525; of whom 160 were natives of India, and 25 of the Malay Archipelago.

It must be remembered that the inmates of this Home are not supported gratuitously; on the contrary, they readily pay for the accommodation offered. The advantage which they obtain is respectability, comfort, and security from their own inherent weaknesses and the predatory attacks of the neighbourhood. Sometimes in bad seasons a loss is incurred; but when they are shipped they readily, from their advances, pay up all their scores. Some arrive quite destitute, having been cleared out by crimps.

Good order is maintained. Many old boarders reappear year after year, and they know the rules of the house, and exercise a controlling power over new-comers. The Home has an educational and moralising influence over its inmates. Cases of intemperance are fewer than before. One excellent feature is the "Deposit account." Inmates are invited to entrust to the Manager their cash and valuables, and it is startling to read that £2,000 passes through the Deposit account in the course of a year! We can measure the nature of the blessing conferred by this statement. The strangers feel that they have an honest friend to whom they can entrust their savings; and, having nothing about their persons to be robbed, they are safer from violence or fraud in a very indifferent neighbourhood. The deposit is drawn upon week by week for their decent support, and the surplus made over to them when they leave.

The number of languages spoken by the inmates is twenty-five. There are great varieties of colour, religion, custom, and appearance; but there are no distinctions of rank; and, as a general rule, women are not admitted. Special arrangements are made for ayahs and Indian female servants in another Home. The class for whom the Home is designed are not likely to travel with female relations. Perhaps one reason for the

harmony which prevails in the motley crew is the absence of that sex, who, whether intentionally or not, generally get men into trouble.

The institution is managed by an Honorary Secretary and a resident salaried Superintendent. The Committee of Management consists to a great degree of retired servants, civil and military, of Her Majesty in British India. There is not much to do, as the machine works smoothly and just pays its way. Once a year an annual meeting is held, and a detachment of the Committee start on the long journey to Limehouse to inspect the buildings, hear the report, and listen to the usual speeches. This year, Field-Marshal Lord Napier of Magdala presided, and two native gentlemen took part in the proceedings, and moved resolutions.

The income of 1882 was £2,305, and the expenditure £2,158. Of this amount, £400 was received in donations, £448 in subscriptions, and more than £1,000 was paid by the inmates for their board and lodging. It is obvious that the expense of the management must be paid from other sources, and so far the institution is a charity.

And it is a charity which natives of India who visit England under more favourable circumstances, for pleasure or education, should take an interest in; and the object of these lines is to bring the subject to their notice. The people of India have at all times been famous for their kindness and consideration to their poorer brethren. Their charity does not always assume the European form, but still it is charity; and the provision for their poor countrymen stranded in a strange country is worthy of their support. A beginning has been made this year, as two native gentlemen took a part in the annual meeting; and next year it may be hoped that a larger number will attend.

If the natives of India desire to rank on an equality with the people of England—and they justly may desire to do so—they must come forward and take a part in associations to alleviate suffering, such as hospitals; and protect the unwary and friendless, such as this Home for Strangers.

ROBERT CUST.

May 16th, 1884.

REVIEW.

THE EXPANSION OF ENGLAND. Two Courses of Lectures.
By J. R. SEELEY, M.A. London: Macmillan.

THIS book consists of "Two Courses of Lectures," the first of which deals generally with the whole subject, the second

being devoted particularly to our great Indian dependency. To readers of this *Journal* the second portion will naturally be of greater interest; and it is to this, therefore, that I shall confine my remarks.

The object Professor Seeley has in writing this book, and his general method of treating his subject, is best shown by the following extract from the first chapter of his *Second Course of Lectures* :—

“The main reason why I have chosen this subject is that it illustrates better than any other subject my view of the connection between history and politics. The ultimate object of all my teaching here is to establish this fundamental connexion, to show that politics and history are only different aspects of the same study. There is a vulgar view of politics, which sinks them into a mere struggle of interests and parties; and there is a foppish kind of history which aims only at literary display, which produces delightful books hovering between poetry and prose. These perversions, according to me, come from an unnatural divorce between ^{what} subjects which belong to each other. Politics are vulgar ^{when} they are not liberalized by history, and history fades into mere literature when it loses sight of its relation to practical politics. In order to show this clearly it has seemed to me a good plan to select a topic which belongs most evidently to history and politics at once. Such a topic pre-eminently is Greater Britain. What can be more plainly political than the questions—What ought to be done with India? What ought to be done with our Colonies? But they are questions which need the aid of history. . . . We cannot suppose ourselves able to form a judgment, for example, about Indian affairs without some special study, because we cannot help seeing that the Indian races are far removed from ourselves in all physical, intellectual, and moral conditions. Here then we see how politics merge into history. But I am even more anxious to show you by this example how history merges into politics. . . . I show you mighty events in the future, events of which, as future, we know as yet nothing but that they must come and that they must be mighty. These events are some further development in the relation of England . . . to India. . . . Shall we discover some satisfactory way of governing India, some *modus vivendi* for two such extreme opposites as a ruling race of Englishmen in a country which they cannot colonise, and a vast population of Asiatics with immemorial Asiatic traditions and ways of life? . . . History ought surely in some degree, if it is worth anything, to anticipate the

lessons of time. We shall all, no doubt, be wise after the event; we study history that we may be wise before the event."

The relationship of England to India is far more difficult of treatment, Professor Seeley considers, than that of England to her colonies; for as the author points out:—

"Two races could hardly be more alien from each other than the English and the Hindus. Comparative philology has indeed discovered one link that had never been suspected before. The language of the prevalent race of India is indeed of the same family as our own language; but in every other respect there is extreme alienation. Their traditions do not touch ours at any point. Their religion is further removed from our own even than Mohammedanism. . . . England is separated from India by one of the strongest barriers that nature could set up between the two countries. Nature has made the colonisation of India by Englishmen impossible, by giving her a climate in which, as a rule, English children cannot grow up."

Gradually and in recent times a great trade between India and England has sprung up; but beyond this Professor Seeley finds it difficult to see what other great advantages we reap from it; "so that we ask ourselves in some perplexity, what made us take the trouble of acquiring it." Yet he has no sympathy with those politicians who not only doubt our wisdom in acquiring India, but who would urge us, now that we have acquired it, to break with it altogether.

"Those who watch India most impartially see that a vast transformation goes on there, but sometimes it produces a painful impression upon them; they see much destroyed, bad things and good things together; sometimes they doubt whether they see many good things called into existence. But they see one enormous improvement, under which we may fairly hope that all other improvements are potentially included; they see anarchy and plunder brought to an end, and something like the *immensa majestas Romanæ pacis* established among two hundred and fifty millions of human beings.

"Another thing almost all observers see, and that is, that the experiment must go forward, and that we cannot leave it unfinished if we would. For here, too, the great uniting forces of the age are at work; England and India are drawn every year, for good or for evil, more closely together. Not, indeed, that disuniting forces might not easily spring up, not that our rule itself may not possibly be calling out forces which may ultimately tend to disruption, nor yet that the Empire is altogether free from the

danger of a sudden catastrophe ; but for the present we are driven both by necessity and duty to a closer union. Already we should ourselves suffer greatly from disruption, and the longer the union lasts the more important it will become to us. Meanwhile the same is true, in an infinitely greater degree, of India itself. The transformation we are making there may cause us some misgivings ; but though we may be led conceivably to wish that it had never been begun, nothing could ever convince us that it ought to be broken off in the middle.

“ Altogether I hope that our long course of meditation upon the expansion of England may have led you to feel that there is something fantastic in all those notions of abandoning the colonies or abandoning India which are so freely broached among us. Have we really so much power over the march of events as we suppose ? Can we cancel the growth of centuries for a whim, or because, when we throw a hasty glance at it, it does not suit our fancies ? The lapse of time and the force of life ‘ which working strongly binds ’ limit our freedom more than we know, and even when we are not conscious of it at all.”

It is the manner in which the author deals with his subject that makes *The Expansion of England* a book certainly worthy of attention. The actual amount of information, so far as details are concerned, is small. There are few readers of a *Journal* such as this, I imagine, who are not familiar with the subjects touched upon in four out of the eight Lectures devoted to India ; viz., “ The Indian Empire,” “ How we Conquered India,” “ How we Govern India,” and “ Phases in the Conquest of India.”

CONSTANCE PLUMPTRE.

LIFE IN A HINDU HOME.

To an Englishman who has never been to India an account of the every-day life of Hindus in one of the largest towns in Western India may not prove uninteresting. Unfortunately the wide gulf that exists between us and those who rule over us has usually prevented every Englishman in India from studying Hindu manners and customs. The reason is not far to seek. Prejudices on the one hand and the caste system on the other have kept the races apart. It should, however, be stated here that what is true of one part of India may not apply to other parts. The *Purdah* system, which prevails in many parts, does

not exist among Hindus of Western India. Hindu ladies in Bombay walk in the streets just as ladies do in the streets of London. The caste system in Bombay is not so exacting as it is in other parts of India; indeed, some castes are so advanced that they respect any Hindu gentleman who has visited England. English readers of this *Journal* may perhaps not be aware that the caste system did not exist in ancient India. There is no mention made of it in the Vedas, the sacred writings of the Hindus. It is a creation of comparatively recent times.

I shall begin by giving a description of a Hindu house in Bombay. I cannot mention the exact length and breadth of an ordinary Hindu house as no two houses are alike; they do not present so uniform an appearance as the houses in London do. Suffice it to say that some of them are of the same height as the houses in Russell square or other London squares. The first thing that a visitor sees is the verandah, where chairs and benches are kept. After the verandah comes the little square-covered court, on the right-hand side of which is a little room in the occupation of some member of the family. We then come to a large hall. This hall is by far the most important room, and I shall have to speak about it further on. Having inspected this hall, we come to a smaller hall, in one part of which are kept the *penates* or household gods, which it is the duty of the family priest to take care of. Then comes the kitchen. It should be noticed that a Hindu kitchen is always very clean, and the ladies of the house take great delight in keeping it so. Here are seen various things, such as brass plates, vegetables and other necessities of life. Behind the kitchen, but at some distance from it, are the bathing rooms, the fresh-water well and a large garden. Between the garden and the bath-rooms is a stand painted white, and in the centre of this stand is a plant called the tulsi plant. The botanical name of it is *ocymum sanctum*. This plant is sacred to the god Krishna. On the first floor over the court is the reception room, which is fitted up partly after European and partly after Oriental fashion. There are chairs and tables, cushions and drawings. The other parts of the house do not contain anything worth mentioning.

So much for the house. I shall now relate what happens during the day. Let us suppose that it is a bright summer morning in the month of May, when the weather is very warm. It is customary with Hindus to take a bath every morning. After this Hindu ladies go round the *chunam* stand with the plant *ocymum sanctum* in it. They go round it a certain number of times, burn camphor near the plant and pray. At eight o'clock comes the family priest. It is his duty to take care of the *penates* or household gods referred to above. He receives a

small sum for this and is respected if he happens to be a clever person, but is not much cared for if he is insufficiently acquainted with the sacred writings of the Hindus. He washes the gods, which are generally placed on a mahogany stand. After washing them he applies the red paste and rice to their foreheads, decorates them with flowers and places them in order on the mahogany stand. Having performed his duties, he takes leave of the family. This priest acts as the officiating priest at the time of marriages, and is present when deaths take place in the family. It is on these occasions that he finds an opportunity for making money, and his income therefore is very large.

It is now nine o'clock, and there is a great bustle in the family. It is time for the gentlemen to go to office. After bathing a Hindu puts on silk garments, applies the red paste to his forehead and mutters his usual prayer. This prayer is full of meaning; it is a kind of supplication to the Supreme Ruler of the Universe. When he has finished this he takes his meals. Hindus do not sit at table, but squat on the ground on a square piece of wood, and the meals are served in a brass plate. Before commencing to dine the Hindu takes some water on the palm of his right-hand and spreads it in a single line round the plate. After this he takes a little rice from the plate and arranges it in a line on the right-hand side of the plate, within the watery line; this is an offering to the gods. The meal generally consists of vegetables, rice, fish and meat. When it is over the gentlemen go to their respective avocations. The head of the family perhaps holds a responsible situation under the British Government, while the junior members are Students of Arts Colleges. When the gentlemen have taken their meal the ladies follow them. Among Hindus gentlemen always take their meals first. Ladies and gentlemen, as a rule, never dine together.

Rich families generally employ cooks, but these cook rice and vegetables only. It devolves on the ladies of the family to cook fish and meat, so much of the time of the ladies is occupied daily in cooking. By the time the meals of all are over it is afternoon, and this part of the day is spent by the ladies in meeting each other and talking. At this hour the ladies from neighbouring houses assemble in the large hall which I have mentioned above, and the conversation begins. Among the ladies that have assembled we will suppose is the wife of a certain Hindu gentleman, who has sent his son to England to take honours in an examination. One of the ladies, who is jealous of the position which her friend's son may attain, makes the following remark: "Why, friend Seeta Bai, what induced you to send your son to such a distant country as *Velayet*?"

[*Velayet* means one's native country, and an Englishman is said to go to *Velayet* when he goes to England. This word is often used in Bombay when anyone wants to speak about England.] This lady goes on to say: "What did you send him there for? Have not men risen to eminence without going to England? What is the use of greatness when it is to be obtained by such separations?" The mother of the gentleman who is in England smiles and says that she could not help it. Another lady who may be present remarks that it is quite necessary to go to England in order to obtain excellence in any line. She adds that the people of England are very nice, and that Indians are treated kindly in that country. The conversation over, the ladies take leave of their friends and return to their homes. Some like needlework very much, and have much proficiency in it.

The management of children generally falls to the lot of servants, who are especially employed for that purpose. It should be mentioned that children are not considered a nuisance among Hindus. The writer of this article has had the opportunity of seeing more than a dozen children in one family, and they were all liked.

At six in the evening the gentlemen come back from their offices. The more pious and devout of these sit before the gods and begin to pray, but in the evening the gods are not washed. Then at eight commence the evening meals. They consist of wheaten bread, milk, fish and vegetables, but no meat is used. The gentlemen then talk about the leading subjects in the daily newspapers, other gentlemen go about visiting. Among Hindus evening is the visiting time. Ladies have certain games in the evening, one of them is very similar to the English draughts. Generally ladies do not play cards, but gentlemen have a game which is very much like the English whist. Some of them are also very clever chess players.

I have thus tried to give an account of the daily life of a portion of the Hindu community in Western India. The patriarchal system of living continues to this very day among Hindus. In the opinion of the writer it has many disadvantages. There is one thing, however, for which this system deserves to be praised. When a Hindu is ill he has so many persons to look after and take care of him that he for a time forgets that he is really ill. But, comparatively speaking, there are few advantages, and this system is not liked by many Hindus themselves. Hindu men and women of the present day are quite different from Hindus of ancient India. In ancient times the women were highly educated and were well acquainted with Sanskrit literature. Foreign invasions, however, did not tend to encourage female education or the study of sciences.

I am exceedingly glad to say that the British Government is doing everything in its power to help female education in India, and the countless millions of India are deeply grateful for all that the British Government is doing for the good of that country.

AN INDIAN TRAVELLER.

SHORNALATA: A TALE OF HINDU LIFE.

BY TARAK NATH GANGULI.

Translated for this Journal by Mrs. J. B. KNIGHT.

(Continued from page 165.)

(All rights in this translation remain with the author of the tale.)

[For the assistance of the reader the names of the principal characters in the following chapters are subjoined.]

Sasibhusan, the elder brother.
Pramada, his wife.
Bipin, their son.
Kamini, their daughter.
Bidhubhusan, the younger brother.
Gopal, his son.

Shyama, the female servant.
Nilkamal, a strolling fiddler.
Biprodas Chakravarti, a rich resident of Burdwan.
Shornalata, his daughter.
Hem Chandra, his son.

CHAPTER XXXIV.

UNEXPRESSED LOVE.

Gopal on leaving Hem Chandra and Biprodas had gone to the Boitakhana. Whom did he find there? Shornalata. Why had she come thither? At dawn, Shornalata, seeing Hem and Gopal in the verandah of the central hall had looked about for her father. Shortly after she saw that he also had gone into the same verandah. She felt sure that he would remain there some time, so she went on to the Boitakhana, peeped in, and, finding it vacant, entered with a beating heart, promising herself to make no noise. But how many things lay around to tempt her to break this promise! In going she stumbled over a chair; trying to save the chair a book fell from the table. The book was *Meghnad Badha* (*The Slaughter of Meghnad**). Turning to the blank leaf at the beginning she found the name Gopal Chandra Chatterjee. Shornalata put the book gently down on the table and went to the shelves on which were some of Gopal's clothes, those that had been given to him by Biprodas at the

* *The Slaughter of Meghnad*, a fine poem by Michael Mudu Sudan Datta.

festival. Gopal had worn them to go to the immersion of Durga. Hem Chandra had also worn new clothes on that occasion, but his sister did not recall the fact. Gopal's upper garment had fallen on the ground, Shorna took it up with care, and cast it about her own person, saying, "That is how he wears it." As she uttered these words she heard the sound of steps at the outer door of the Boitakhana. Startled, she turned and saw Gopal! Blushing from throat to ear, she threw down the garment and fled to the inner rooms, she could not stop to put it in its place. Gopal said, "What is it, Shornalata?" but she was no longer there. He put the garment away, then flung himself face downwards on the cushions of the taktaposh to think. These were his thoughts, interspersed with heavy sighs, "Are you as the dwarf trying to reach the moon? despair is useless, it never helped any one. It is of no use expressing my wishes to any one, they would only think me a fool. Without money it is useless to live, if I had money now I should not need despair. The poets say money is the root of all evil, but why then did they write books? and why did they fret because their books did not sell? The world is full of deceit, people do not speak their real thoughts; why should they? Since one is called a fool for speaking one's thoughts it is better to be silent. If Shornalata's father had not willed her so much money I might have hoped one day to coax him to give her to me, but the will closes that path. I don't want money, the will might be reversed so far as I am concerned, but because I don't care for money is that any reason Shorna should be willing to let it go? Can she love me as I love her? That is not possible. I am a poor man's son, why should the rich care for me? Since the day I told her my condition she has not spoken with me; she never calls me, if I come where she is she instantly goes away. If she does not think of me, why should I die thinking of her? what is the use of thinking? After two or three days more I shall go, perhaps I shall not see her again in this life. Let it go; I won't think of her." He took up a book and began to read, but it was useless; he read a few sentences and his mind wandered; he found he knew nothing of what he had read, not a letter did he take in. Vexed, he threw down the book and took up another, with the same result; yet more vexed, he put the book aside and sat down to write letters. He wrote the date at the top of a sheet, then began to think whom he should address; he rejected one name after another, and then resolved to write to his father; tore off the sheet on which he had written the English date, and began to write in Bengali, but on reading it over found many mistakes. Correcting them defaced the sheet, so he tore it up. Another attempt proving

no more successful, he tore up the second sheet and lay down again.

Hem Chandra, after seeking hither and thither, came into the Boitakhana. "What!" he exclaimed, "you were here all the time, and did not answer my call!"

"Have you called me?"

"Called till my throat is ready to burst. Come, let us go and bathe."

"Have you fixed the day for going to Calcutta?"

"Not yet. Father will look at the almanack and choose a day."

Gopal half uttered the name Shornalata; he wanted to ask what had been determined as to her marriage, but not being able to articulate the name he remained silent. Fortunately Hem's mind was turned in another direction; he had not noticed Gopal's attempt to speak.

They bathed, breakfasted and laid down to rest.

CHAPTER XXXV.

We have told the reader that Bidhubhusan after placing Gopal in Calcutta went with a Deputy-Collector to Dacca. This Deputy-Collector Babu was fond of music and singing. He employed Bidhu in clerk's work during the day. Bidhu was not very expert at such work, but soon became so, and in the evening gave the Babu some instruction in music. Whatever he could spare from his salary, after meeting his own expenses he sent to Gopal.

One day as Bidhu was purchasing cloth in the bazaar he heard a great uproar in the street. All in the shop went out to see what was the matter, and Bidhu with them. They saw approaching a man of tall figure and black complexion, followed by a troop of boys throwing dust upon him, and calling out, "Baccha Hanuman!"

Bidhu at once identified the man as Nilkamal, though neither in countenance nor in figure was he the same. His hair was long, his beard reached his breast, his eyes were inflamed, his frame emaciated. He came on followed by the screaming lads. At intervals he turned round to strike them, when they would fall back, only to return to the charge a moment later. As Bidhubhusan came up Nilkamal was about to strike him, but on seeing his face, exclaimed, "Dada Thakur! I did not know you. They are tormenting me so, I do not know strangers from friends. I am ready to die."

"What has happened? when did you come here?"

From behind the cry continued, "Baccha Hanuman! Baccha

Hanuman!" With these words in his ears Nilkamal could not reply to Bidhubhusan's questions, he said, "First save me, Dada Thakur, afterwards I will tell you all."

Bidhubhusan tried to drive the boys away, but as fast as they retreated on one side they came up on another. Annoyed, he seized Nilkamal by the hand and drew him into the shop. Unable to follow, the boys departed. Bidhu took Nilkamal to a separate room. As they rested Nilkamal said, "Where have you come from, Dada Thakur?"

"I asked you where you came from. You were engaged in a profitable business, why did you give it up?"

"Dada Thakur, if it is not in one's destiny the greatest happiness cannot last long. From your house I went to my home, that was the beginning of the disturbance. From that time wherever I have been it has followed me. Dada Thakur, since you forbade it I have not once sung that song, I never speak of it, still people will not let me alone."

Bidhu understood that Nilkamal alluded to the Lily song. He made no remark, and the other continued, "Tell me, Dada Thakur, where I can go to be safe?"

"Why do you get angry over it, Nilkamal? it is for that reason that they go on."

"Dada Thakur, I often say that to myself, but when I hear those words I lose my senses and become mad."

Of the truth of Nilkamal's words there could be no doubt; looking in his face Bidhu perceived that it was indeed so. They remained till evening in the room attached to the shop, then Bidhu said, "Come home to my dwelling, we will eat and sleep there."

"Dada Thakur, I cannot furnish any food."

"What do you say?"

"This is the third day I have neither eaten nor drank."

Noticing his weak voice, Bidhu said, "Remain here, and I will bring you some food." But Nilkamal said, "No, no;" and by the light of the moon Bidhu saw that his eyes wore a frightful appearance. By dint of much coaxing he succeeded in getting Nilkamal to his own house, and leaving him in the outer room, went to get some food. On his return he found the room empty, Nilkamal was gone, and though Bidhu searched everywhere no trace of him was to be found.

Bidhubhusan had never known such comfort as he had enjoyed since entering the employ of the Deputy Babu.

It is now necessary to see how Sasibhusan was getting on in his grand house. Ram Sunder Babu's machinations had begun to take effect. The Korta (the wife of the Zemindar) sent in a

petition, and the magistrate came down to make personal inquiries. He found the Babu seated on the floor of the Boitakhana. In front of him were some clerks writing. Because he heard that the magistrate was coming the Babu was trying to do some work this evening. His eyes were inflamed, so also the end of his nose, he could not speak clearly. He kept the fan going, but could not keep the flies from his face.

Seeing the Babu's condition, the magistrate was speechless, but after a while he asked a few questions. The Babu could not give a single answer out of his own mouth, he could only speak as Sasibhusan dictated. The magistrate saw clearly that all the power was in the hands of Sasibhusan. He therefore gave orders that until a manager should be appointed by Government the Kacheri must be closed, and he called upon Sasibhusan to render an account of the mode in which he had managed the Zemindari. It was as though a thunderbolt had fallen on the head of Sasibhusan. He was not now thinking of the future. That an account of the past should be called for filled him with terror; he would have far preferred to be at once deposed from office. He went home with a shrunken countenance. On other days when he left office every one had risen and stood respectfully; to-day every one seemed immersed in his work and no one regarded him. As he went home no one in the road saluted him, Sasibhusan never raised his head in expectation of it. With bent head he entered his home and laid down on the bed. Pramada asked, "What did the Sahib say?"

"What should he say? he has destroyed me."

"How has he destroyed you?"

"He has called for my accounts, and until they are made clear I am to do no other work."

Pramada ceased to question or to answer. Before evening Sasibhusan went into his Boitakhana, but though he sat there not one of the clerks appeared. Now and then there was a sound, but when Sasibhusan looked eagerly out what did he see? perhaps a rice or a cloth merchant coming for his dues. About eight o'clock Sasibhusan sent to the houses of the clerks, but all those who were accustomed to hang about his house were this day engaged—not one was able to come. At nine Sasibhusan went to Ram Sunder's house. There he found them all assembled. Not one rose to welcome him. Formerly Ram Sunder had not smoked in the presence of Sasibhusan, to-day, as though to compensate himself for previous restraint, he smoked incessantly, but he seemed to have forgotten that Sasibhusan smoked.

Sasibhusan sat down, no one spoke to him. After a few moments, as all rose to disperse, Sasibhusan said, "I came to

see you all." The cashkeeper mockingly answered, "You are very kind, do you want anything from me?"

A writer said to the cashkeeper, "Come along, it is late." Sasibhusan said, "Do me the favour to sit down a little, I came to see you all." All sat down. Presently he said, "I came to remind you that if you do not stand by me I shall be ruined." Ram Sunder answered, "What can I do? what power have I? I am but a clerk, I am not influenced by any one nor do I influence any one."

"That is true, but if you do not help me, I cannot get out of this trouble."

The rest rose to go, saying "Then you have no need of us."

"I am a petitioner to you all."

Thus saying, Sasibhusan threw his upper garment round his neck, joined his hands humbly, and took a seat at the side, tears streaming from his eyes.

The cashier and the others were melted at the sight of his dejection. After much wrangling it was agreed that if Sasibhusan would give four thousand rupees to four men they would cover his ill doings, but that when his innocence should be proved he should give up his office.

Having no remedy, Sasibhusan consented.

CHAPTER XXXVI.

WHERE IS GOPAL?

Misfortunes never come singly; if one appears it is followed by a troop. Hem Chandra's father died, and before the family had got over this event Hem Chandra was attacked with smallpox. This disease was very prevalent in Calcutta that year, and many fell victims thereto. When the eruption appeared, Hem said to Gopal, "Have you been vaccinated?" finding that he had, added, "I have smallpox, you must all be very careful." Gopal glanced at Hem's body, and seeing it covered with red spots, he ran off without any remark to fetch the doctor, who having examined the patient confirmed their impression. In two or three days the whole body became inflamed. Hem could not speak for the pain in his throat, nor open it sufficiently even to drink water. Gopal neither eat nor slept, he was constantly at Hem's bedside. Sometimes he eat a little rice, but often left it untouched. One day Hem said, with much difficulty, "Don't sit here all day, Gopal, else you also will get the disease." Gopal made no reply, and presently Hem asked, "Have you written to any one at home about my illness?"

"No."

"Then do not do so."

"Dada, there are two letters from home, will you read them?"

"Do you read and answer them, only do not mention my illness."

Gopal in writing reported all well. Two or three days later Hem became delirious, talking day and night chiefly about Shorna and Gopal. Gopal sat weeping beside him. Shyama would hasten through her work and come to sit with Gopal, who asked her, "Didi, do people ever recover from such a condition as this?"

"There is no fear, this is common smallpox. I have seen people recover from a much worse condition."

"Tell me truly, Didi, will he live or no?"

"Am I speaking falsely? Hosts of people have recovered from much worse illness."

Just then the doctor coming in examined the patient, and inquired how long he had been delirious. Gopal said, "Since this morning?" The doctor looked so grave that Gopal asked, "Is the illness serious?"

"Not only serious, but mortal."

Gopal burst out weeping, and the doctor continued, "Do not give way, with care it is possible that he may live."

Gopal, encouraged, took down the doctor's directions in writing, and followed them faithfully. When the doctor was gone, Gopal said to Shyama, "I have not yet sent home any news of Hem's illness, but now I must do so. What do you say?"

"Yes, you must. Should anything happen here they will think that being in the hands of strangers he has died from neglect and the want of proper medical attendance."

Thereupon Gopal wrote as follows:—

"SHORNA,

"The elder brother is seriously ill with smallpox. Hitherto he has forbidden me to tell you, but now he is delirious. The doctor still gives hopes that he may yet live. If you wish to come, do so. I and Shyama are doing all that we can.

"SRI GOPAL CHANDRA CHATTERJI."

Having sent this letter to the post, Gopal's heart was much lightened. He was depressed with fear lest people should say the patient had been neglected. He remained constantly with Hem, neglecting both food and sleep; he would not give up his post to any one; if Hem but moved his lips Gopal at once guessed what he wanted, no one was so quick as he at guessing.

On receiving Gopal's letter Shornalata and her mother became extremely anxious. Leaving the rest at home, they two

went by palki to the railway station. None of the family knew in what part of Calcutta Hem dwelt. The residence of their Guru Thakur (spiritual adviser) was near Serampore. The grandmother said, "Come, Shorna, we will go first to the Guru's house, I know where it is, he will send a man with us to Calcutta." Shorna agreed. They took tickets, and by the evening arrived at the Guru's house. His name was Shashanka Sheker Smritigiri. Hearing of the arrival of the ladies he went forth to greet them.

Saluting him reverently, they said, "Guru Deb, Hem is dangerously ill, there is doubt of his recovery; we wish to go to him, but do not know his house. If you will send a man with us we shall easily find it."

"What need is there of a servant? I am ready to go with you myself. What is the disease? would it not be well to perform some propitiatory ceremonies on his behalf?"

"The illness is smallpox. If you think it well to propitiate the gods, pray do so. Do not fear that money will not be forthcoming."

So saying the grandmother took from the corner of her sari a note for Rs. 50 and gave it to the Guru, who took it to the light to examine it. He could not restrain a smile of delight at the amount, but concealing his thoughts he returned to the ladies, and said, "Very good, this shall be expended as far as it will go, but I am not sure that it will suffice."

"Please to do what is needful, any further sum that is required shall be paid."

"It shall be done, but I do not see how you can go on to Calcutta to night."

"Is there no train?"

"No."

"Then hire a boat and let us go by water, we must not delay."

Seeing the grandmother's anxiety the Guru sent a man to the river side to engage a boat, but he quickly returned with the news that no boat was to be had, so Shornalata and her grandmother were compelled to stay at the Guru's house that night. Before sunrise next morning both were ready to start, but the Guru did not hurry himself. He rose some time later, pasted on his forehead with Ganges mud the marks indicating his priestly character to impress the ladies, who bowed to the ground before him. He gave them his blessing, then seeing they were ready to start he asked, "Has Shorna been vaccinated?" The grandmother replied, "None of our forefathers were vaccinated."

"Then she should not go with us,"

"We will do whatever you advise."

"You had better leave Shorna here, else she will take the disease."

The grandmother consented, but Shorna said, "I will go even if I should take it."

"It is not right for you to go. In the first place you have not been vaccinated, and, secondly, the Guru forbids it. How then can you go?"

Shorna was silent. The Guru said to her, "You will remain here, we will send you word daily how Hem is."

Shorna was obliged to consent. Shashanka Shekar proceeded with the grandmother to Calcutta. Hem had been delirious for three days, but now his countenance was changed and the doctor was delighted. He said, "There is no longer cause for fear, he will recover." Gopal's joy was extreme.

At this moment Hem's grandmother arrived with the Guru, and came straightway into the sick chamber. Hem opened his eyes and not seeing Gopal, uttered his name. The grandmother said, "I am here now, what can I give you?" sitting down near him as she spoke. But Hem said, "Where is Gopal?"

(To be continued.)

PROFESSOR MONIER WILLIAMS ON INDIA.

The Boden Professor of Sanskrit lately delivered a lecture on India before the University of Oxford. He said that, having just returned from his third Indian journey, he felt humbled by a sense of the little he had learned, compared to what he had still to learn, of that wonderful land, which was a semi-continent containing one-sixth of the human race. Perhaps the point that had impressed him most forcibly was, that India was a land of surprises, contradictions, and anomalies, which over-precise, over-logical, and self-opinionated persons had better not select as the sphere of their life's work. The public economist must expect to see his cherished dogmas brushed away; the philologist his linguistic rules disregarded; and the student of religions, his book-evolved theories upset by actual experience in India. Then that most unchangeable of countries had during the last hundred years undergone more changes than any other. In the middle of the last century six foreign invasions occurred. Vast districts were depopulated, innumerable homesteads ravaged; Thugs and robbers made all travelling unsafe; widow burning, infanticide, and human sacrifices were common; no

man's life and property could be called his own; the whole country was hastening to anarchy, chaos, and ruin. What a change had our rule effected, and what vast improvements had the lecturer himself witnessed! Order for chaos; good government for anarchy; justice for oppression; a watchful police for plunderers and murderers; a well-organized army for unruly bands of soldiers; peace and security for war and rapine; well-drained land for feverish swamps; cultivated fields for wild jungle; comfortable cottages for lairs of wild beasts; engineering works of greater magnitude than can be seen in any other part of the world; 10,000 miles of railway connecting every province; districts once shut up within themselves, and hostile to each other, brought into inter-connection; tramways running in large towns; post-offices and telegraphs in nearly every village; caste, the bane of progress, giving way before facilities of communication; laborious trigonometrical, topographical, industrial, and archæological surveys extended to every district; trade and commerce developing; old industries reviving; new ones being introduced (as proved by the recent Calcutta International Exhibition); continually increasing plantations of tea, tobacco, indigo, and chinchona; new jute factories, cotton mills, paper mills being erected; new coal mines being exploited; new hospitals, sanatoriums, orphanages, and admirably arranged gaols; education everywhere gaining ground, and a new departure being inaugurated by the recent Education Commission, which had just published its exhaustive report; a fourth University just added to the three already existing; women admitted to the University examinations, and at Calcutta even to degrees; new colleges and schools (like the Muir and Mayo colleges) being established; European literature and philosophies more and more appreciated; a free Press, giving birth to an increasing progeny of ably-conducted newspapers, magazines, and native books; municipal institutions and self-government gradually advancing; the whole tone of native thought and feeling being elevated and Christianized, if not converted to Christian dogma. And were no reflex benefits conferred on us? One of the chief was the invaluable training-ground afforded by India for developing the administrative ability and energy of the young men we sent there. Great Britain might well be proud of the work done by her sons, often in an exhausting climate and under many difficulties and drawbacks. But she ought to be grateful for the advantages she gained. And was there no reverse side to the picture? It was to be regretted that the old social gulf between the rulers and the ruled remained still unbridged. Yet native caste prejudices were greatly to blame, and the Professor had lately found examples

of his fellow-countrymen, high in office, living on terms of the greatest personal friendship with the Indian community around them. Undoubtedly there was a great increase of cordial co-operation between Englishmen and Indians in every department of work. The Professor deplored the yawning gulf still existing between the educated natives and the mass of the people, and between the educated husband and his ignorant wife. He lamented other evils. The killing of cows and oxen caused great offence. They were sacred animals, and essential for agriculture. More encouragement should be given in University examinations to proficiency in the vernaculars; the degrees of Pundit and Maulvi should be given for proficiency in Sanskrit and Arabic; the out-still system was increasing drunkenness while it increased the revenue. More might be done to deter the people from ruining themselves by borrowing from usurers at rates of interest varying from 12 to 75 per cent., and by squandering large sums on marriages, caste festivals, and funerals. Mr. Leslie Saunders had called a meeting of the most influential inhabitants of his district, and persuaded them to combine together for the creation of a strong public opinion opposed to such pernicious customs. Why were rich native minors so often committed to the tutelage of plausible Baboos, who demoralised them instead of really educating them? Why were the native States allowed to maintain useless armies which drained the resources of India, when their military ardour would be quite as well satisfied by making them furnish contingents to serve with our army outside their own territories? The Professor then adverted to the new route likely to be soon opened to India, which, he predicted, would lead to a great development of intercourse between Europe and our Eastern possessions. Mr. Cust had lately travelled by this route, so far as it was completed, and had published a map, a rough copy of which was exhibited in the lecture-room. A railway ticket might be taken from London to Odessa; thence the traveller was transported by fine Russian steamers in two days to Batoum, at the other end of the Black Sea. There comfortable Russian railway carriages were in readiness to take him in thirty-six hours to Baku, on the Caspian. The trajet in fine steamers to Michaelovsk, on the other side, took one day. At Michaelöfvsks was the terminus of the new Central Asian Railway, which the Russians had completed some months ago for 144 miles, as far as Kizil Arvat. They were pushing it on to Herat by Merv, lately occupied, and Sarakhs, just ceded by Persia. We, on our side, as announced in the *Times* of April 28th, were pushing on our line to Quetta. We should be compelled, though against our will, to carry on our railway through Candahar, and meet the Russians at Herat.

English influence ought to dominate in Afghanistan ; but the Professor had been cured of Russophobia by his repeated travels, and hoped we should meet the Russians at Herat as friends. There was room for both. The Russian Empire was being impelled towards Herat—notwithstanding the disclaimers of its Government—by the same law of self-preservation, and the same necessity of progress, which was impelling the British Empire, against the wishes of its Government, towards the same goal. It was only a question of a few years. If we remain friends with Russia, the journey from Calais to the Indian frontier would soon be accomplished in nine days. Professor Monier Williams concluded by saying that his main object in visiting India a third time was to endeavour to induce the supreme Government to found six scholarships for natives in India, to be attached to the Indian Institute. He was happy to say that the Viceroy and his Council had assented to the proposal, which was enthusiastically supported by the educated classes in India, and now only awaited the sanction of the Home Government.

CASTE GIRLS' SCHOOL, MYSORE.

We have received an interesting account of the prize distribution on March 29th to the pupils of the Maharanee's Girls' School, Mysore. H.H. the Maharaja and all the leading European and Native gentlemen of the Station were present, and also several Native ladies belonging to leading families of Mysore, for whom a portion of the hall was set apart. The girls sang some Canarese and English songs, and two of them recited well a dialogue in Sanskrit between Seeta and Kousalya (Seeta refusing to listen to the persuasions of Kousalya that she should give up the idea of accompanying her husband in his wanderings). The Report read by the Secretary gave a promising account of the school, which is only in its third year of existence. The number on the rolls has risen to 210, and this is an indication of the increasing popularity of the school among the orthodox higher classes. The course of instruction for the elder girls embraces Canarese poetry, prose, composition, arithmetic, music (Native and English songs), drawing, needlework and fancy-work, geography, hygiene, Sanskrit and English. Hygiene and Sanskrit have only been lately introduced. "Great care is taken to impress upon the young minds the important

principles of domestic sanitation and personal hygiene, without burdening them with too many scientific facts; and the progress which the girls have made in this subject, drawing, to be very satisfactory." Sanskrit is "studied with interest and enthusiasm." Drawing is learnt under a master who has had his training at the Madras School of Arts. Native history is taught in all the classes, and a few girls learn the vernacular. "Religious songs, specially composed, and which are likely to inspire love and piety towards the Creator in the hearts of the girls, are sung by all." In the higher classes there is included English. The annual Examination, which is far in advance of that of the other schools, is conducted by several English and Native gentlemen, and is a proof of intelligent and careful instruction. The managers, having found the want of suitable Elementary Text Books, arranged to have some compiled, by the co-operation of educated young men. We are glad to find that, to meet the difficulty of the early withdrawal of the girls from school, the plan of Home Teaching has been started. Two Pundits now give lessons in Sanskrit and the higher Canarese literature; but it is hoped and intended to train Hindu lady teachers for this work. A Canarese Journal, containing useful information and attractive reading, has been begun for the benefit of the pupils. No pains seem to be spared to make the school effective and an instrument for promoting sound education.

The following address was made by the Dewan on the occasion :—

Ladies and Gentlemen.—His Highness the Maharaja asks me to say that it is a source of great pleasure to him to be able to preside on this occasion. You are aware that His Highness has always watched the progress of this school with very great interest. It is, therefore, specially gratifying to him to find that the results achieved during the past year—in themselves so highly satisfactory—are infinitely more so because of the promise they give of a bright future. An important feature of the proceedings of the last year is, that the number of pupils was much larger than in the preceding year. The average daily attendance was also much improved, as it was 162; whereas in the previous year it was only 102. This result was due partly to the increased number on the rolls, but chiefly to the more regular attendance of the pupils.

The curriculum is considerably higher than what it is in the other schools; but the results achieved fully justify the higher

standard adopted by the managers. Canarese, arithmetic, and geography are taught in all classes; Sanskrit in all classes except the last two, and English in all classes except the last two. While hygiene is taught in the three senior classes. There is no doubt that this is fully assured—the trustees, indeed, very encouraging, as they show that the young possess a thorough knowledge of all subjects that have impelled them. We may, therefore, congratulate the trustees on the marked advance of the standard of the school during the last year; and if this measure of advance is maintained—there is no doubt that this is fully assured—the trustees, Monier have given the school their unremitting devotion and visiting, and the public, who have accorded it their sympathy, and will watch its onward career with interest and anxiety, will all find that there exists in it every hopeful sign of a brilliant future. Very flattering testimony is borne to the proficiency of the pupils, not only by the gentlemen who conducted the annual examination, but also by the various distinguished visitors who during the year inspected the school and saw the children in their daily class-work. I would specially invite your attention to the observations of the Lord Bishop of Madras (in the Visitors' book), whose eloquent testimony to the usefulness of this institution must stimulate still further the zeal of the trustees and the devotion of the teachers.

Female Education, in spite of the rapid progress which it has made in recent years, is still in a state of infancy; and the standard proper for girls' schools has not yet passed beyond the stage of discussion. The opinion is often expressed that the education of Hindu women should be kept in due subordination to that of the men, and that reading, writing, arithmetic, with a little instruction in general morality, must constitute all that is necessary for the education of Hindu women. But, limited as the standard of female education already is by the fact that the girls are withdrawn from the schools at a very early age, there is no necessity whatever for further limiting it in this manner. The success of this school is a practical illustration of this; for it has been able to teach up to a much higher standard in a way which commands unqualified public approbation. English is taught in all classes, except the last three; but this does not involve any neglect of the Vernacular language, to which great attention continues to be devoted, as heretofore. Indeed, Sanskrit is taught in the higher classes, both for its own sake, and as an aid to the study of the higher Vernacular literature. In addition to these languages, the three highest classes also learn the important principles of domestic sanitation and personal hygiene out of appropriate

text-books. Some music also is taught, and the songs, both in style and matter (as those who understand the language will see), are such as are calculated to inspire feelings of charity and piety. Then there is taught some needlework and drawing, which do so much for the education of the eye and the hand, and afford means of innocent and useful occupation in after life. It has been possible to accomplish all this without overtaxing the young girls, because their receptive faculty is generally much keener than that of boys. Indeed, as observed by the Education Commission, the intellectual activity of the Indian women is very keen, and it seems frequently to last longer in life than the mental energies of men; their intolligence is far in advance of their opportunities of obtaining school instruction, and promises well for the future of female education in India.

We are told in ^{probable} report that a beginning has been made to establish a system of Home Teaching in connection with this school. With the ^{Sun} further development of this system, the means of continuing her education will be placed within the reach of every girl withdrawn from the school. The great difficulty in this matter lies in the absence of proper teachers; but we are justified in hoping that, in due course of time, the difficulty will be overcome. I need only draw your attention to the bright scene before you in this hall to convince you that the realization of this hope need not be deferred indefinitely; for some of the more advanced pupils present here may be encouraged, after they leave the school, to qualify themselves for the noble work of teaching.

The Canarese Journal that has been started by the managers of the school is an additional means of educating the more advanced girls, and, from the few copies of the Journal which I have seen, I am confident that its management is in very good hands. The want of such a periodical, containing both useful information and light literature, has long been felt, and the *Hithabothini* promises to supply it adequately.

The want of appropriate text-books is one of the difficulties which beset female education. Books prepared for boys are not likely to be either interesting or suitable for girls. This is specially so in the case of good reading books; for the particular lessons on morality to be inculcated on boys are certainly not those primarily required for girls. The trustees have given the matter their earnest attention, and they have so far been successful that a good reading book, specially suitable for girls, has been recently published under their patronage. The book is called the *Nitichintamani*, and is compiled from popular Indian sources, and is instructive and interesting. The importance of preparing other small reading books of the same kind

cannot be exaggerated, and the trustees, it is understood, continue to devote their attention to this important subject.

Ladies and gentlemen, it gives me great pleasure to inform you that during the past year Sivaramraj Babadur most liberally set apart a sum of about half a lakh of rupees to form a fund for the encouragement of education in those departments in which no other adequate provision already exists. This fund is called, after his father, "Devaraj Bahadur Charity Fund;" and the annual proceeds of the fund are utilized (by trustees appointed for the purpose), partly towards the encouragement of Sanskrit literature and education, and partly in aid of High Caste Female Education. This school receives considerable aid from this fund, and for at least a part of the good work done in the past year it is indebted to the princely liberality of Sivaramraj Bahadur. It is now my pleasure and duty, by command of His Highness the Maharaja, to heartily congratulate the trustees and the teachers on the eminent success which has crowned their past year's labours. To the sisters of the Convent of the Good Shepherd the very cordial thanks of the public are due; for the school owes no small measure of its success to their sustained and cheerful devotion to their work.

We have received further details about this School from Mr. A. Narasim Iyengar, by whose exertions much has been done for its progress. He explains that the reason why Sanskrit is introduced is that the pupils may intelligently follow the teachings of religion and morality which are conveyed in that language.

CROSSING THE SEA FOR HINDUS.

The following article is in continuation of one on the same subject which appeared in the *Jan. Journal*, in regard to the caste feeling in South India as to Brāhmans crossing the sea.

In the first paper on this subject it was asserted that a *math* near Poona had, ten years ago, given a verdict in favour of Brāhmans crossing the sea. The self-complacency of southern Pandits does not, however, admit of their acknowledging the correctness of the Mahrattā reading of the texts. It is sneeringly

asked whether there is any learning in *Mahārāshtra* (Mahratta country)? Even supposing that the interpretation of the Pandits there be correct, the local conservatives argue that "the North" has already been excepted by Bodhâyana from the prohibition against sea-going; conveniently forgetting that the North means the country lying between the Vindhya and Himālaya mountains, and that the Mahrattas are governed by the laws, rituals and customs of the South. Nor is it quite correct to say, as the orthodox defenders of custom do, that there have been no instances in South India of a Brāhman who has gone to England being re-admitted into Brāhman society. One of the barristers now practising at Bangalore is a Brāhman, whom the Smārtas have excommunicated. But his Brāhman servant, who had lived with him in England for years, had been, after some probation and after certain ceremonies, taken back into the bosom of his caste and family.

Such is the unreasoning frame of the Brāhman mind at present that these apparently unanswerable facts and arguments are not even listened to, and everybody is content to follow the general stream of tendency in his own caste, not caring whither he floats. The friends and sympathisers of the new movement are openly anathematised as atheists, pariahs, materialists, "London-Brāhmans," &c. The traveller himself is, for the time being, forgotten; but those who befriended him, or showed him any kindness or hospitality, and those who advocate others visiting Europe from considerations of general good, are persecuted with what looks like malicious cruelty.

As for the *Shastras* on the subject the majority of the expelling body do not understand them, and those that can read them for themselves are content slavishly to accept the meaning attached to them by the *māths* and tradition-worshipping priests. The masses sneer at the slightest attempt at a different construction, and put an extinguisher on the most fervent enthusiasm by asking whether the sceptic is greater or more learned than the heads of the *māths* and their satellites.

From the foregoing outline it may be possible for outsiders to form some idea of the upheaval which the Brāhman world is undergoing at present. Friends of progress are cheered by this sign of healthy action, which they hold to be infinitely preferable to the stagnant content, or the semblance of it, which has kept the people inert for so many ages.

It would be untrue to say that the orthodox "contents" do not number in their midst some very intelligent and worthy gentlemen, who are not slow to perceive and admit the advantages of Hindus visiting England. Their chief reason for opposing it seems to be that they will personally suffer much avoidable

inconvenience and hardship by detaching themselves from the majority; but the excuse which they plead is that the reform is at present premature and therefore inexpedient. One of the great bugbears of these worthies is the scorn and contempt which they fancy will be hurled at them by the other sects and sub-sects of Bráhmans for allowing into their fold an "England-travelled" member.

An attentive observation of the signs of the times, and a *real* desire for the material prosperity of their country, would doubtless enable them to perceive that their fear is chiefly imaginary. At any rate travelling to England as Bráhmans cannot be put in the same category as the numerous vices, which are unfortunately honeycombing Bráhman society through and through at the present moment. The Mahratta Bráhmans are no less sticklers for caste than the Southerners, and yet the former do not make any fuss on the point. Bráhmans visit England from the Bombay side and return into their old social positions,—many of them without doing any penance whatever.

Nor can it fairly be asserted that this demand for liberty—not *license*—by the rising generation is altogether abrupt and sudden. As has been shown already, a Bráhman servant, who had lived in England some time, has managed to get back into society; and nowhere is it laid down that visiting the countries of the *Mlecchas* is an inexcusable breach of the canon laws. For instance, going to Persia is, according to the Smritis, equal to visiting Bengal, except on pilgrimage, and the same may be said of going to England. Objection is only taken to making a voyage. But it is undeniable that thousands have made and are now making voyages along the coasts, across the Bay of Bengal to Burmah, and to Ceylon. The advocates of reform are only solicitous of extending this practice for the social, material, moral and intellectual amelioration of their country. It cannot be too often brought to the recollection of the conservatives that the liberals do not in the least desire to subvert their social life; and while they encourage their wealthy countrymen to travel, deprecate the abandonment of the best national habits and tastes as strongly as they protest against the loss of their own social status. There is hardly any need to say that the appliances of modern science and civilisation enable every one, of whatever nationality, to preserve wherever he goes most of his own distinctive and peculiar habits.

A BRAHMAN LIBERAL.

THE HINDUS IN ENGLAND.

To the Editor of The Journal of the National Indian Association.

The subject which I wish to refer to in this letter is one of vital importance to those concerned. There is no cause for surprise in the presence of a Mahomedan or a Brahmo in England, for their respective religions allow them sufficient latitude to remain anywhere they like; but the presence of a high-class Brahmin or Vyas, with his extreme religious and social scruples, in London, must surely strike everybody who knows anything of them in India as strange; for the moment a member of any of these communities sets his foot on the English soil, he finds himself placed in an awkward position, and, to an ordinary mind, the retention of his time-honoured caste prejudices becomes a thing of the past. This circumstance alone has hitherto produced a most deterrent effect on persons who would otherwise have the means and the inclination to come to England. Ten or twenty years ago the visit of a Hindu in London was a thing almost unknown; but now that the advantages of a stay in this country for study are more and more appreciated in India every day, which the presence of so many Mahomedan gentlemen here at present, strongly proves. The Hindu youths, too, are seized with a burning desire to come over here, which is only quenched by the fear they have of losing their caste—or, in other words, their social position in India—by such a step. The object of this letter, therefore, is to direct the attention of Hindu gentlemen in India to a course, by adopting which it is possible for them to come over to this country, stay in it for any length of time they please, reap the advantages which Western learning and culture can offer them, and yet return to their own country as good Hindus as when they came away from it; unimpaired either in their social position, or in the affectionate regards which their friends may have for them.

I mean to direct attention to the scheme hit upon by Dr. Leitner of having a boarding-house for Hindus in the suburbs of London. The name of this learned gentleman, who has made the advancement of the Hindus the one great object of his life, is already too well known to people, both here and in India, to need any mention from me here. He has worked

most indefatigably to attain his object; for years together he has been working for the education of one of the largest provinces of India, the Punjab, where he has at last succeeded in establishing a University, and a very noble one too, which will hand down his name to generations after generations of the Punjabi youths who will come under its beneficent influence. But he, however, did not stop his labours there; he educated the people in the Punjab, and he wants to enable those who care to do so to educate themselves in this country; and he has, therefore, now come here on furlough, and is busy in giving tangible shape to the scheme which he formed long ago to attain the latter end. No one understands better the fabric of the caste system in India, and, therefore, no one could have more successfully undertaken the task of establishing an institution of the kind he has established. If only one comes here determined to preserve his caste, he can conveniently do so, according to Dr. Leitner's scheme; his arrangements are most thorough-going from first to last. From the moment a man sets his foot on board a ship in Bombay to come here, till the moment he sets his foot back again on the Indian soil in Bombay, on his return from this country, he is all safe, perfectly safe. Permanent arrangements have been made, or will be made, with the proprietors of some well-known line of steamers to employ Brahmin cooks for Hindus, and to provide them with reserved accommodation during their voyage, so that they should have no inconvenience whatsoever when they will reach here. There is a large house, most picturesquely situated on the banks of a river, ready to accommodate them during their stay. If persons will only bring servants with them from India, they want nothing else; every other requirement of theirs has been so well studied by him in the arrangements that he has made. What is more, the Doctor, in carrying out his scheme, has not lost sight of economy; in fact, according to him, one can live in the Hindu boarding-house at one-half the expense that he will otherwise have to incur. In London the rent of apartments is about the heaviest item of expense; and for this in his boarding-house, one will have to pay not a farthing. This fact alone reduces the expense of living here almost to half. The next item is the railway fare; the boarding-house is nearly twenty-four miles from London, and the price of even a third-class return ticket from it to London is usually about three shillings and sixpence; but it is proposed, I hear, to make some agreement with the railway company to reduce it in favour of his students to probably a shilling or so. What a saving! Then, lastly, the boarding-house has the advantage of a healthy and beautiful locality, which no place in London itself could have

had. It also places its inmates out of the reach of the temptations of London, unless of their own accord they plunge themselves into them. In a word, the scheme promises to be all that could be desired; and my only prayer is, that it be appreciated in India, and that its wealthy sons come forward to help it with their purse, as Dr. Leitner, with so much disinterested zeal for their good and at so great a self-sacrifice, has matured it to this stage.

PIYARILAL.

LONDON.

MADRAS GOVERNMENT FEMALE NORMAL SCHOOL.

The first public prize distribution at the Government Female Normal School, which was founded mainly at the instigation of the late Miss Carpenter, took place on Friday, April 4th, in the School premises, Egmore. Mrs. David Duncan presided on the occasion. Among those present were Dr. D. Duncan, Principal of the Presidency College, Mr. H. B. Grigg, Mr. and Mrs. J. Bilderbeck, Mr. L. Garthwaite, Mrs. Brander, Miss Carr, Mr. P. Runganatha Mudaliar, Mr. and Mrs. G. Duncan, Rev. J. Cooling, Miss Keely, Mr. Eduljee, Mr. Dinshaw, and several others. The proceedings began by a song sung by some of the pupils, after which Mr. Vijiarungan Mudally read the Report of the institution for the past year. It stated that the school included two departments, one for normal pupils, and the other for practising school children. In December last nine normal pupils were presented for the Method Examination, and all passed. Two appeared for the Higher Examination for women, and one passed. Two were presented for the Middle School Examination, and both passed. Four went in for the Special Upper Primary, but only one passed, the other three having failed in needlework. Eleven normal pupils taught before Mrs. Brander, the Inspectress of Girls' Schools, who reported very favourably of them. There were two practising schools, one for Europeans and Eurasians, and native Christians who spoke English, and the other for Caste Hindu children. The numbers in these departments were very small, owing to the recent removal of the school, and its reorganisation. Six

Europeans or Eurasians are admitted every year to be trained as teachers. During the past year seven students had obtained employment. In addition to the prizes allowed by Government, an extra prize had been presented by Mrs. Duncan, and a great many presents had been received through the Hon. Sec. of the National Indian Association.

Mrs. Duncan presented the prizes. Mr. Grigg then rose, and in the name of Miss Carr thanked Mrs. Duncan for presiding. He said he felt a particular pleasure in thanking her as the representative of the greatest institution in Madras. It was a good omen for the institution, and he expressed a fervent hope that the alliance between that institution (viz., the Presidency College) and this school would be strengthened. The progress since the institution was presided over by Miss Carr was most satisfactory, as was to be seen from the Report that had just been read, and he hoped that under that lady's guidance it would grow more and more in the confidence of every pupil, and would rise higher and higher. He next addressed himself to the students, who, he trusted, would do their best to take advantage of the admirable instruction given there. If they followed the course laid down for them, they would never repent of it, for they were engaging in a noble work.

Dr. Duncan, in thanking Mr. Grigg for the vote of thanks to Mrs. Duncan for presiding, spoke of the interest that he had always felt in the Normal School, and said that, as Principal of the Presidency College, he should do everything to help the cause of high education. The proceedings were closed with the National Anthem.

KONNAGAR GIRLS' SCHOOL.

The annual distribution of prizes to the successful students of the Konnagar Girls' School, near Calcutta, was held on the 12th April, at the premises of Babu Shibchunder Deb. Many ladies and gentlemen were present on the occasion, among whom were: Mrs. E. Lindstedt; Miss Lipscombe; Mr. and Mrs. Girard; Mrs. Wince; Miss Pedder; Babu Bhairub Chandra Banerji, Vakeel High Court; Babu Trailokya Nath Mitra, D.L.; Babu Panchkari Banerji, B.L.; Babu Sarat Chandra Chatterji, B.L.; Babu Kali Das Bose, Assistant-

Surgeon, and Babu Gopal Chandra Deb, Medical Officer to H.H. the Maharajah of Cashmere.

Mrs. Lindstedt presided, and after the reading of the Committee's Report by the Secretary, Babu Girish Chandra Deb, she distributed prizes to about thirty girls, in books, toys, and workboxes, &c. Some of the latter were sent from England by Miss Manning and Mrs. J. B. Knight, and to these two workboxes were added by Mrs. Lindstedt. Babu Bhairub Chandra Banerji afterwards addressed the girls in a neat speech in Bengali.

Extracts from the School Report are given below :

"The number of girls on the rolls on the 31st March, 1884, stood at 65, against 67 on the same date of the preceding year. The average daily attendance during the year under review was 43.2, against 46 of the last year. All the girls were Hindus, of whom the Brahmins numbered 22, the Kayesthas 40, and other low-caste Hindus only three. Of these only two were married, the rest were unmarried. The ages of the girls range from five to twelve years. The National Indian Association, Bengal Branch, awarded two Mary Carpenter Scholarships of one rupee each to this school. These were obtained by Surenbala Dasi and Kirankumari Bose, of the 1st class. The school receives from Government a grant-in-aid of Rs. 20, and from the Serampore Municipality Rs. 5 a month. The rate of schooling fees for the 1st and 2nd classes is As. 3, and for the rest As. 2, a head per month. The subjects of study were Bengali literature, Grammar, History, Geography, Arithmetic, Elements of Natural Philosophy, and Needlework. In March last nine girls competed at the Scholarship Examination, conducted by the Uttarpara Hitakari Sabha, of whom two were candidates for the Second, and the rest (seven girls) for the First Examination; the result is not yet known. In December last the Annual General Examination of Classes was held, the result of which was satisfactory. The teaching staff consisted of one Head Pandit, a 2nd Pandit, and a Mistress. Besides the Government and Municipal grants, there was a large amount of subscriptions paid by the people, to meet the current expenditure of the school."

INDIAN INTELLIGENCE.

Mr. Pestonjee Hormusjee Cama has increased his gift for the new Hospital for Women and Children at Bombay to Rs. 164,300, it having been brought to his notice that the Rs. 120,000 previously given was insufficient to construct the hospital on the plan devised by Government. Besides this, he

has set aside Rs. 25,000 for prizes or scholarships to be given to certain of the female students who have obtained the L.M. and S. Degree. His general idea is to afford temporary assistance to the young women doctors when they are striving to build up a practice. His total donations will amount to the munificent sum of Rs. 189,300.

The Convocation of the Madras University was held on March 27th at the Senate House, H.E. Mr. Grant Duff presiding as Chancellor. Degrees were conferred on an exceptionally large number of graduates. The address, after the degrees had been conferred, was delivered by the Hon. Surgeon-General Cornish, who dwelt forcibly on the necessity for largely developing female education. Such education had been recently making large advances, but there was ample room for more. He urged each graduate to do his utmost in this direction. He trusted that the graduates would carefully study the wants of their communities, and help to suppress social evils, such as the life-long indebtedness induced by extravagant expenditure on marriage ceremonials. We intend later to print a part of this valuable address.

An exhibition of a large collection of educational apparatus has been held at Bombay. It was opened on March 19th at the old Elphinstone High School premises, by H.E. Sir James Fergusson. There was a large attendance of gentlemen representing the Educational Department, and of others who take an interest in the education of the natives of India. Mr. T. B. Kirkham, Educational Inspector, briefly stated the circumstances under which the collection of appliances had been brought out from England at the suggestion of Mr. Chatfield, Director of Public Instruction. H.E. the Governor in his speech referred to the advancement of education both in England and India, and said that he hoped that there would be a vast addition to the equipment of this Presidency for primary education. Referring to the several models placed before him, he said that in their preparation the physical welfare of the pupils had been carefully studied. The assembly then inspected the various apparatus, which were neatly arranged in three separate rooms, and were much admired.

The City College, Calcutta, has been affiliated up to the B.A. Standard, and a B.A. Class has been opened. In the late Examinations of the Calcutta University the City College passed a larger proportion of its candidates than any other College. The total number in the institution by the last Report was 1,007 (183 in the Law Department, 175 in the general College Department, and 649 in the School).

We regret to record the death, at the age of 59, of Babu Govind Chunder Dutt, the father of the late Miss Toru Dutt, whose poetical writings are so widely known and appreciated. The Babu was a constant contributor to the *Calcutta Review*, and had great literary ability. He held many offices under Government, including that of Assistant Accountant General at Bombay, and was much esteemed for his high character, his simplicity of nature, and his unostentatious charity. He visited England some years ago with his wife and his two daughters, both of whom died shortly after their return to India.

An interesting social gathering of ladies was held in Peace Cottage, the residence of Mr. and Mrs. P. C. Mozoomdar, in Upper Circular Road, on the 5th of April. The following ladies, among others, were present: Mrs. Reynolds, Miss Reynolds, Mrs. Murray, the two Misses Murray, Mrs. Grant, Mrs. K. B. Stuart, Mrs. Baily, Mrs. Cowie, Mrs. S. N. Tagore, Mrs. B. L. Gupta, Mrs. Ram Sunkar Sen, and about thirty other Hindu ladies. Mrs. Mozoomdar read a short address of welcome, of which the following is a translation: "Dear Sisters,—I have invited you to-day not to hold a grand meeting, or to discuss religion or politics; but I have called you in love, and you have kindly come, that we may meet for the sake of our mutual pleasure to talk on agreeable subjects. Such intercourse increases friendship and goodwill between the races, and such friendship is the essence of all moral and religious relations. English women and Bengali women are of very different temperaments. The English lady hesitates to mix with the native lady, and the latter feels shy and awkward in the presence of her European sister. But I feel, when we are the children of the same God, subjects of the same Queen, and inhabitants of the same country, why should we not, in spite of difference in dress and habit, unite in goodwill and friendship? Let us meet to learn each other's manners and customs. Let us, if possible, discard what is wrong in them. It cannot be expected that European ladies should live as we do, and perhaps it is equally impossible that Hindu ladies should change their habits and live as Europeans; but it is both possible and desirable that we should meet and mingle, trying to learn what is good in each other's character and ways. English ladies have come to this country, leaving behind them their relatives and friends. Is it not our duty to receive them as our friends and sisters? and is it not their duty to help us to improve ourselves in knowledge and manners? I am therefore very glad to receive you all in my house, and hope there will be similar meetings in other houses." The ladies then partook of refreshments, and remained together for some time. The meeting proved very successful.

The Annual Meeting of the Bengal Branch of the National Indian Association was held on April 3rd; Dr. Kenneth McLeod in the chair. Mr. P. C. Mozoomdar gave a very interesting address on his travels in America and Japan, and the meeting was largely attended.

PERSONAL INTELLIGENCE.

Mr. Shapurji Kavasji Sanjana (Inner Temple) was called to the Bar on May 8th.

In the recent Examination for the Lincoln's Inn Scholarships in Common Law, the Benchers awarded the first prize of one hundred guineas (Common Law, including Criminal Law) to Mr. Satyendra P. Sinha. Mr. S. P. Sinha had a few months before received a prize of £50 in Roman Law, Jurisprudence, Constitutional Law, and Legal History.

At the late Examination held at the Inns of Court, the Council of Legal Education awarded to Mr. Narendra Natha Mitra a certificate that he had satisfactorily passed a Public Examination.

The following passed a satisfactory Examination in Roman Law:—Mr. Charles Golaknath (Inner Temple) and Mr. Panruti Vallam Ramaswami Raju (Inner Temple).

At the Presentation Day of the University of London, May 14th, Mr. Jogodesh Chunder Bose, B.A. Cambridge, received his B.Sc. Diploma, Pass and Honour (4th in Experimental Physics).

Mr. Kaikhoseo N. Bahadurji and Mr. Aaron C. Dutt have passed the Primary Examination in Anatomy and Physiology of the Royal College of Surgeons of England.

Pundit Bishan Narayan Dar and Sheikh Omar Bakhsh have joined the Middle Temple.

Mr. A. B. Master has been elected a Foreign Member of the Society of Telegraph Engineers.

Arrivals.—Mr. and Mrs. M. D. Cama, from Bombay; Mr. Shapurjee Sorabjee (Bombay Foundry and Iron Works) and Mr. P. B. Jejeebhoy, from Bombay, for study in the working of iron; Pundit Bishan Narayan Dar, from Oude; Sheikh Umar Bakhsh, from the N.W. Provinces; Mr. James Tarini Churn Mitter, from Calcutta, for the study of Medicine; Mr. Aurung Shah, from Shillong, for the study of Medicine; Dr. Charles H. F. Underwood, from Bombay; Mr. Nanda Lal Banerjea, of Allahabad, for the study of Medicine.

Departure.—Mr. S. K. Ganjana, for Bombay.

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PRESIDENT OF THE ASSOCIATION.

WE have the satisfaction to announce that the Right Hon. Sir Arthur Hobhouse, K.C.S.I., has accepted the office of President of the National Indian Association.

MEDICAL WOMEN FOR INDIA.

By Dr. FRANCES E. HOGGAN.

Since last I wrote on this subject there has been little to chronicle, for the satisfactory reason that everything is going on well, and steady progress is being made. There is only to record quiet, unobtrusive, useful work, the daily routine of medical practice at the few Indian centres at which medical women are to be found, and the daily round of study for the earnest band of medical students. Miss Pechey, at Bombay, is said to be "doing very well indeed, if lots of work means success," to have all she can do, and to be busy from morning till night. Mr. Kittredge writes: "A Mahomedan gentleman has offered Rs. 20,000 for a dispensary. Government have given the land, and the Municipality have agreed to give Rs. 500 a month to keep it up until the hospital is opened. We believe the appropriation will ultimately be made a permanent one; but we have not asked for more, as one year's corporation cannot bind its successors." Success attends Mrs. Scharlieb's work also, at

Madras, but she is still waiting for her hospital appointment; for, as a friend writes, "it takes time and patience to carry out any good scheme." From Hyderabad and the other parts where women doctors are settled no recent information has been received. In this country the stimulus which the prospect of remunerative practice in India has given to medical study for women continues to be sensibly felt, and frequent requests are made to members of the National Indian Association for further information. It is worthy of remark that some of these applicants are clergymen, anxious to see their daughters enter a liberal profession, and render useful service to the daughters of India, outside and independently of missionary zenana agencies, which hitherto have absorbed much of the energy of women of this class.

Full of promise for the future are the public and private accounts received of the conduct and progress of the women students in the various Indian medical schools. Not long ago some apprehension was roused by exaggerated reports of an insignificant students' disturbance at the Grant College. A Bombay correspondent thus describes it:—"There was really no row with the male students; it was very much exaggerated by those who would like to stop the movement for women doctors. One day one of the students chalked the seats where the girls usually sit. No notice was taken of this. Another day one of the students threw some fruit at the girls as they were passing out of the room. He was rusticated, and the trouble ended. It really was not worthy of any notice; but the papers here, as elsewhere, are only too glad to get hold of anything which can be twisted into an excitement. The present professors at the College, with perhaps one exception, favour the movement." Letters to *The Lancet* from some of the professors themselves fully confirm this view of the favourable opinion and support of the profession in India; and even those who, like Sir Joseph Fayrer, formerly expressed disapprobation of women doctors for India, now refrain from giving public expression to their opinion.

The current of opinion in India is indicated in various ways. The *Tribune* says of the five or six ladies admitted into the Punjab Medical School:—"They will obtain posts under Government if they succeed in passing the prescribed examination. The Punjab has fairly entered into the race

with Bengal and Bombay." The *Mirror* says of these same students :—

"To test the intellectual attainments of the candidates, an examination was held last week. Some of the ladies have very creditably passed the examination; one of them, I am glad to say, is the daughter of a Brahmo brother. After three years of training, these ladies will turn out as hospital assistants. This is a real boon."

The *Indian Messenger* for May 18th contains the following paragraph :—

"It gives us very great pleasure to find that the Lieutenant-Governor has, by a recent Resolution, sanctioned the establishment of special scholarships for the benefit of lady students of the Medical College. These scholarships, of the value of Rs. 20 a month, and tenable for five years in the Calcutta Medical College, will be, for the next ten years, awarded to all female candidates who enter that institution after passing the First Arts Examination, whether they gain scholarships in that examination or not. We are also glad that Miss Ellen D'Abreu and Miss Avala Das, who are now studying in the Madras Medical College, have been permitted to hold the scholarships which they had gained on passing their examinations in Calcutta, and which expired in December, 1883, during the remainder of their course of study; and it was in forwarding the applications of Miss D'Abreu and Miss Das that Mr. Croft took occasion to recommend the establishment of these special scholarships. There can be no difference of opinion as to the wisdom of the course that has been taken, as it will greatly encourage the diffusion of medical education among women. The Resolution of His Honour, referring to Mr. Croft's recommendation, says: 'He shows that in all probability the cost of the scheme would be trifling in comparison to the benefits which it would confer upon the women of Bengal. . . . In the year 1838-39 there were fifty students in the Medical College, all of whom "received monthly stipends ranging from Rs. 7 to Rs. 12, according to their seniority and deserts." Whatever reasons existed forty years ago for encouraging male students to fit themselves for medical work, are equally applicable now to the case of female students.' We quite agree."*

* In 1881 there were eighty students in the Second Department of the Madras Medical College. All but one were stipended, and educated gratuitously for the service of the State. The Principal, nevertheless, recommended that female students (who had no stipends) should no

In reference to these scholarships, the Calcutta correspondent of the *Bombay Gazette* gives further particulars, and says :

"Miss D'Abreu and Miss Avala Das, from the Bethune School, Calcutta, who obtained scholarships in December, 1881, and have been studying medicine at the Madras Medical College, the former in the M.B. and the latter in the L.M.S. class, but whose scholarships expired in December last, have been granted extensions of their scholarships till the expiration of their terms of study; and Misses Virginia Mary Mitter and Bidhu Mukhi Ghose, who passed the First Arts Examination in January last, have been granted five years' scholarships for the Calcutta Medical College. The Lieutenant-Governor remarks in the resolution, that in June, 1883, the important question of the admission of females to the classes in the Calcutta Medical College came before him for decision, and the principle that all possible facilities should be offered for the training of female medical practitioners was deliberately affirmed, from the standpoint of general policy as well as of individual freedom. Opportunity has now arrived for giving immediate effect to the policy thus laid down, and furthering the cause of female education in Bengal in a manner which promises to yield speedy results. Only the experience of years can show whether the educated women of Bengal will avail themselves of the facilities now offered to them, and prove by real work that they are fit for the duties and responsibilities which some of the more advanced among them are anxious to assume."

Native Opinion, speaking of the lady students at Madras, says :

"Their progress may, on the whole, be considered satisfactory. Miss D'Abreu, from Calcutta, has passed the Preliminary Scientific Examination, and is qualifying for the M.B. degree. Miss Hayes and Miss Avala Das are in the class qualifying for the L.M.S. degree. Four other ladies are qualifying for the College Diploma. The failure of three of these is to be regretted; but the Acting Principal thinks it due rather to the over crowding of subjects into the second year of study (to remedy which he has suggested a change of curriculum), than to any defects in the lady candidates."

longer receive their education gratuitously. On this recommendation the Director of Public Instruction, Mr. H. B. Grigg, made the following comment: "Seems premature. So far from placing any check upon the attendance of such students, I would prefer to encourage it by liberal stipends."

At the annual meeting of the Grant Medical College, Bombay, Dr. Vandyke Carter, the Principal, reported as follows on the female class :

“Candidates were first admitted in January of the current year. There are now twelve members, of whom seven are Christians and five Parsees, residents of both Bombay and the Mofussil. Already one of the lady students (Miss Ann Walke) is an undergraduate of the University; and it is anticipated that others may also go up for the Entrance examination. Considering any overcrowding to be undesirable I decided not to extend the class this session; and in consequence have had to decline a few applicants, from both near and distant places. It is satisfactory to see that at the inauguration of this new class some very promising candidates have presented themselves; and I would here state that the conduct of all has been quite exemplary.”

And in his concluding remarks, Dr. Carter, alluding to the subject of women students as one tentatively viewed at the close of his last report, and now practically realized, added :—

“Soon after the date of that report I was, after some correspondence, requested by the Director of Public Instruction to arrange for the admission of women students into this College; and the regulations then drawn up being approved and duly notified by Government, the class already described was, with the willing co-operation of all my colleagues, speedily instituted. Events having thus shown that the throwing open of the College to women was neither premature nor superfluous, I would express my satisfaction that, equal to others, a fair field now offers to those lady students who combine diligence with ability and an aptitude for medicine. And I am glad to think that, if experience regarding the first male graduates of the Grant Medical College be any guide, some at least of the women students now in attendance here have an excellent career before them in this vast country, large enough for all.”

At the same annual meeting the Governor of Bombay expressed his satisfaction at the generally flourishing condition of the College, and the creditable conduct of the students, instancing as a proof of the uniform good conduct of the members the fact that a single momentary indiscretion, on the part of a youth (the one whose rustication has been already alluded to), should have been so severely visited. Speaking of medical women, he said :—

“A step has been taken in the right direction by this College

in the admission of female students; and, gentlemen, when we have divested ourselves of the natural prepossessions, not to say prejudices, which, no doubt, have been well known to us all, I think we will admit that in this country the experiment of female ministrations to the sick is one which ought to be tried, particularly in this country. I expressed last year my confidence that, under the intelligent and liberal superintendence of our medical profession, the experiment would be fairly tried. I am glad to say that the first arrival of a female practitioner in this country has been in the person of a lady whom to know is to respect. Under her auspices, and under the generous encouragement given by the heads of this College, this important movement may be relied on to have the best chance of success. I hope we are all actuated by one desire, that this movement may result in great relief to suffering in this country, and in bringing within the region of medical treatment a number of poor persons who have been mostly excluded from it."

A private correspondent wrote last May from Bombay :—"The account of the female students is also very good. Dr. Hatch, one of the professors of their first examination, the other day, told me that some of them did remarkably well; a Parsee lady took the lead, distancing forty young men; then came a European, and so on; but of thirteen only two or three did poorly."

From Central India the cheering news comes that the Maharaja of Dhar, who, it will be remembered, has several times testified his strong desire to found a post for a qualified woman doctor in his capital, now contemplates making a grant to the Indore Hospital, for the purpose of enabling it to employ women doctors.

A correspondent of the *Times of India*, commenting on May 3rd on this project, writes :—"The Maharaja will by his liberality confer a great boon on the weaker sex, who, shackled as they are by caste prejudices, persistently decline to take advantage of the benefits offered by the hospital until it is too late to do them any good."

Thus by slow degrees is provision being made for meeting the demand for women doctors in India, which is now so generally recognized. The great *vis inertia*, which so long retarded the practical consideration of this momentous question, is now overcome, and those who, in its earlier days, were ridiculed for maintaining that women doctors would be serving the country quite as much as the doctors of the Civil

Medical Service, and were therefore equitably entitled to their share of Government emoluments and rewards, may yet live to see a special service of medical women established in India, honoured, respected, and doing incalculable good to the native community. Formerly earnestness and strenuous endeavour were the necessary requisites of friends of the movement; now patience in waiting for results, which cannot, in the nature of things, be rapid as a mushroom's growth, is perhaps equally necessary. Untiring activity in India, sympathizing recognition in England of the work projected and carried out in that far-off country, will perhaps be most conducive to the furtherance of the high aim we have in view; namely, the extended ministration of skilled medical women to the sufferers of their own sex, with the stamp of Government approval and recognition, which experienced persons declare to be necessary in order to ensure success amongst the populations of India. A hope has recently been expressed in France that our example may be followed in Algeria, with its large Mohammedan population; and it is perhaps not visionary to look forward to a time when this hope will be realized. Ours is an age of inter-communication and progress, and an idea fruitful in one country may well be accepted in another, where a like need is experienced as the similar conditions prevail.

HISTORICAL SUGGESTIONS IN THE ANCIENT HINDU EPIC, THE *MAHÁBHÁRATA*.

This word is a combination of *mahá*, great, and *bhárata*, supporter. Bhárata is the ancient name of northern Hindustan, and was derived from a celebrated early monarch. This "great supporter" poem extends in length to about 215,000 long lines, as Professor Monier Williams, of Oxford, has observed. Milton's *Paradise Lost* only contains about 10,600. Even the voluminous Spenser's *Fairy Queen* has not more than some 30,000. It is ascribed to a celebrated ancient Sage, who is also recorded to have compiled the Vedas (*i.e.*, books of knowledge), and to have written the Puranas (*i.e.*, "ancient" books of the Hindu religions), which belong to phases of religious thought subsequent to the Vedic, but professing to be associated with the Vedas.

As his name simply means "collector or compiler," it is suggestive of his being mythical. Introductory recitals in the poem itself assign it to Vyāsa, just as Washington Irving ascribes his *History of New York* to Knickerbocker. Vaisampayana is said to have recited it to a king, and may have been the author. Modern commentators of late years seem generally to have assigned it to several authors. Comparing it, however, with the Waverley novels, as the work of one man, it does not seem beyond the capacity of a single author. Fifteen years' labour, about the time bestowed by Gibbon on his *History of the Decline and Fall of the Roman Empire*, would complete the work at the rate of some fifty lines per diem, allowing for holy days. It is written in what is styled the classical Sanscrit. It contains an account of a great dynastic war, the heroes of its pages being claimed as ancestors by the old royal families of Hindustan; but there is considerable suggestiveness in it of the whole being allegorical, a sort of gigantic *Pilgrim's Progress*, because the names of the personages are usually in accordance with their attributes, like Bunyan's Mr. Double-facing-both-ways, Mr. Morality, Mr. Ready-to-halt, &c. There is, at all events, considerable doubt as to whether any history of value can be obtained from it, so far as the origin of dynasties or the precise purport of the great war described in it; but it is full of interesting historical suggestions of the life of our Aryan ancestors, the ancient inhabitants of Bhārata, now Hindustan, and suggests of our religion, philosophy, our medicine, and of our ancient English skill with the long-bow, the descriptions of the palaces and cities suggest high and skilled skill in architecture. We see allusions to theatricals, which seem to have appertained to the style of those of modern Europe rather than to those of Greece, or of the monkish mysteries; and the accounts of the eating and drinking would not disgrace the period in the estimation of either a modern glutton or gourmet. They savour even of the now sacred beef, and they drink wine, rum, and arrack. Long lists of dainty dishes are given, and their equipments altogether appear to have been of an elaborate and civilized nature. The epoch of the *Mahābhārata* is by the Hindus themselves assigned to about 3000 B.C., at which period the events which it describes are supposed to have taken place. The first generations of Sanscrit scholars ascribed it to somewhere between the 13th and 5th centuries B.C. The later generations seem to place it at some date between the 5th century B.C. and the 5th century A.D. Whether written a thousand years ago or five thousand, the elaboration of all the details of the civilization described in it seems complete. The display of philosophical research and moral science is varied

and extensive, and the whole suggests a vast old civilization on the plains of the upper Ganges and Jumna, which would seem to have required some such approximate period as 20,000 years to have grown up from crude culture. Sir Walter Scott's novels could only have been produced in an age refined by many generations of civilization; and the *Mahābhārata* would similarly seem to have required a cultured epoch for its production.

It is difficult to conceive that it could have been indited after the Buddhism of Ashoka, in the 3rd century B.C., had spread the land with Buddhist monasteries. Still less does it, in its internal evidence, look like a work which an author could have written when India, north and south, was so full of Buddhist monasteries as it was in the 5th and 7th centuries of our era. To these we have the remarkable testimony of the Chinese pilgrims, Fah Hian and Hiouen Tshang. There appear to be allusions in it to what may be called archaic Buddhism, but it suggests the Buddhism of its early days, before it had bloomed into councils and hierarchies. It is difficult to conceive that the author would have introduced a Yavana king, as he has introduced one, after this word had been applied to the Greeks, and after the great Yavana Alexander had invaded the land. He styles him the black Yavana, and relates a legend of him certainly suggested by nothing in the Bactrian Greek history. This seems a prototype of Washington Irving's story of the long sleep. The Yavana king, pursued by Krishna, takes refuge in a cave, where he awakes a monarch who has been enchanted by slumbering since the world's last age. The Yavana is killed, and the awakened sleeper much astonished at the changed aspect of men and manners. If the conjecture may be approximately true that it was produced at about the 5th century B.C., we must certainly acknowledge a very high civilization in India in the time of Pericles of Greece. The author of the poem asserts that it is a compilation of all existing legends and stories. These have been illustrated by him, or the several authors, in a multitude of discourses, religious, philosophical, appertaining to the regions of moral philosophy, as well as metaphysical, &c., &c. With regard to materialistic matters, Dr. Hunter, author of works on Orissa, &c., has observed that glass was already known to the Hindus in the time of the *Mahābhārata*. We read that at the regal assemblage of Yudishthira (*i.e.*, firm in battle), the chief of the princes celebrated in the poem, one of the royal pavilions was paved with black crystal, which the chief of the other side, Prince Duryodhana (*i.e.*, difficult to conquer) on entering mistook for water, and drew up his garments lest he should be wetted.

"Firm in battle" is the eldest and chief of five virtuous

princes, who are deprived of their possessions by wicked princes, but afterwards reinstated by means of the great war. Their history terminates by their all making a sort of Bunyan's *Pilgrim's Progress* towards the Indian heaven in the Himalayas; having experienced the vanity of all earthly aspirations, and only longing for the blissful repose of heaven. Curiously, and indicative apparently of the antiquity of the legend, the five are wedded to one wife, the Princess Krishnâ (*i.e.*, the brunette). But as the five brothers are all narrated to be incarnations of various forms of Indra, the Hindu Jupiter, the impersonation of the firmament, the story becomes less contrary to the ordinary Hindu ideas than it would otherwise be. In this king "Firm in battle's" palace, banquets are described as consisting of venison and the wild boar, with fruits, sweetmeats, and various potations. The company is entertained with instrumental music, singing, and dancing. The palace is described as immense and beautiful, adorned with statues and precious stones, and surrounded with lakes, lovely with the blue and crimson lotus. The Sage Narada, a kind of Hindu Mercury, visits the princes. He is declared to be versed in all the ancient histories, expert in logic, and greatest of doctors in his knowledge of the six philosophical treatises, acquainted with the true nature of peace and war, and capable of absorption by contemplation in that one who is at the same time two and many. He tenders the king the following advice concerning the royal duties.

I venture to contend that it displays a knowledge of the highest duties of kingcraft, of the duties as well as what may be styled the constitutional powers and privileges of a monarch, and that it indicates an ancient, settled, and thoughtful civilization :

"Let thy ministers," he says, "who should be well acquainted with the treatises on politics, carefully keep secret thy councils. Let thy kingdom be securely defended, that it may not be even insulted by enemies." Then he inquires whether the king's fortresses are well stored with water, corn, arms, engines of war, soldiers, workmen, and money. Does his arch-brahmin duly announce the time of sacrifice? and, after proper ablutions, does he explain to him the position of the stars? Is the general of his army truly a hero? are his officers skilled in the use of arms? and does he give his army a proper allowance of pay and rations? "For," remarks the Sage, "if the day passes without their receiving either pay or rations, the soldiers may behave in a manner suggested by the indigence of their royal master, which has been recognized as a cause of very great evils." When he marches to meet the enemy the king is to be careful

to throw out advance guards, and also to protect the rear of his army. "But," the Sage philosophically demands, "do you conquer yourself before attempting to vanquish others? March valiantly," he continues, "to battle; but when you have gained the victory, become yourself the protector of your enemy."

The king must have secretaries to regulate his expenses. He is asked whether his societies of handicraftsmen are composed of honest folk; for it is only by the practice of the arts and handicrafts that the world can exist in easy prosperity. Are his villages formed for defence after the fashion of the towns? Are his decrees proclaimed in the midst of the assembly of the people? Is he surrounded by a bodyguard, in red and splendid attire, with sabre in hand? Then inquiries are made concerning his medical men; and he is warned against materialism, falsehood, rage, negligence, sloth, and idleness; and against such persons as avoid those who possess knowledge. The Sage further inquires whether the tax-collectors have recourse to impositions, such as extorting false dues from foreign merchants who visit the country whether the king looks into the condition of agriculture, whether regular relief is extended to labourers, and protection given to the blind, idiots, &c.

CHARLES J. STONE, F.R.S.L., F.R. Hist. Soc.

(To be continued.)

HOME EDUCATION AT MADRAS.

The following extract from the Proceedings of the Director of Public Instruction, Madras, dated 3rd May, 1884, refers to the Home Education undertaken by the Madras Branch of the National Indian Association:—

Read the following letter from the Inspector of Girls' Schools, Third and Fifth Divisions, South Arcot and Trichinopoly, to the Director of Public Instruction, dated Madras, 18th April, 1884, No. 792:—

I have the honour to submit my report on the home education classes established by the Madras Branch of the National Indian Association, examined on the 24th, 25th, 26th, 27th, and 28th of March, 1884. I was generally very much pleased with the work being done in these classes.

2. There are now three teachers at work against two last

year. Two of these teach Tamil and one of them a little English, while the third teaches Telugu and a little English. The Committee were hindered in their attempt to extend home education to Muhammadans last year; but the services of Miss Cripps, who has passed the special upper primary examination in Hindustani, have now, I understand, been secured for certain hours of the week, and it is intended to make a beginning shortly.

3. The number of pupils has risen from 18 to 29, and the standard has also been raised, one of the pupils having succeeded in passing the special upper primary examination. At the inspection five upper primary certificates were gained against three last year, and one lower primary certificate against four last year.

4. I was glad to learn that in five of the houses the Tamil and Telugu magazine *Janavinodini* was taken regularly and was read by the ladies. In several houses *Suguna Bhodini*, a new magazine intended for Hindu women, was also taken.

5. Needlework has generally improved, but much still remains to be done. The plain needlework and the colours and designs of the ornamental work require special attention. Most of the pupils enjoy doing needlework, and some of them must have been very industrious to complete the large quantity shown to me. Two obtained prizes at the exhibition of the Association, and many gained certificates.

6. Hygiene has been carefully taught to all the pupils who were sufficiently advanced. They answered questions in this subject very intelligently at the inspection, and appeared to possess a practical knowledge of hygiene. Arithmetic had improved, but only one of the pupils was in the habit of keeping the household accounts.

7. The attendance registers for each class were in order and were very neatly kept.

8. It has not yet been found possible to conform to a great number of the rules laid down in Rule 46 (b) of the Code. Rules 1, 2, 4, and 5 are observed; but it has been found impossible to conform to Rules 3, 6, 7, and the first clause of Rule 8.

The Association, it is observed, employs three teachers against two at the previous inspection. Of these teachers, one has a first-grade, one a second-grade, and one a third-grade certificate. All are trained. All devote more than four hours for five days a week to teaching. The average time spent in passing from house to house is $8\frac{1}{2}$ hours a week. One spends eleven hours in journeying, as her work is distributed between Black Town and

Triplicane. As soon as practicable, the work should be divided between two teachers. It is hoped that arrangements will soon be made for beginning the work among Muhammadans.

2. The cost of these teachers was Rs. 90,* of which nearly one-half was met by grant, one-third by fees, the balance from the funds of the Association. Education of this description should be self-supporting; but as this is not practicable, the fees should be raised so as to cover at least 50 per cent. of the cost. At present all pupils pay fees which average over Re. 1 per pupil. It must not be forgotten that no charge whatever is made for supervision, the duty being performed most kindly by Miss Eddes, in addition to her duties as Superintendent of the Maharajah's Schools, without extra remuneration.

3. There are now 29 pupils, of whom 14 are Sudras, 8 Vaisyas, and 7 Brahmans, against 15 last year. All save three are children of officials. The increase is very encouraging. Eight are studying for standards above the third, against four last year. The increase in the number of upper primary certificates is very satisfactory. The decrease in that of lower primary, which is regretted, has not been explained.

4. The Director is glad to learn that in every class the pupils are provided with slates, copy-books, books and needlework materials, and that these were in good order and neatly kept, and that there had been a marked improvement in this respect since last year; also that two pupils gained prizes at the needlework exhibition and many certificates. The attention of the Association is drawn to Mrs. Ender's remarks regarding the necessity for improvement in colour and design. These are matters in which Hindu girls should excel.

5. The results of the examinations were generally satisfactory. The intelligent study of hygiene is noteworthy.

6. The question of relaxing some of the provisions of Rule 46 (b) will be taken into consideration at once, as sufficient experience has now been gained of its working.

7. The Director considers the record of the year's working encouraging, and trusts the Association will gradually enlarge their operations in this direction, which are especially deserving of Government support.

(A true Copy and Extract.)

(Signed) H. B. GRIGG,

Director of Public Instruction.

Per mensem.

SOCIAL AND PHILANTHROPIC INSTITUTIONS IN THE WEST.

VII.—WORKING MEN'S CLUBS.

English working men have ordinarily few opportunities of meeting each other for social purposes and for recreation after their day's labour. Their houses are very limited in size; in towns they have often only one or two small rooms, which are the living-rooms of their families, and afford only too limited space for household avocations. The uncertain climate and the shortness of the day during half the year render it difficult to assemble sociably out of doors. Moreover, except in country districts, there are scarcely any open places available; on all sides streets and houses surround the home of the artisan. If he wishes to meet his friends and to amuse himself quietly after the hard work is over in which he has been all day engaged, there is often only one way of doing so. He must go to the public-house, where he finds a warm, well-lighted room, and where he can enter into talk with companions, and enjoy games or singing. But here, unfortunately, he is exposed to the temptation of drinking to excess. As these social meetings are held at the very place of supply of spirits and beer, there is danger lest habits of hurtful extravagance and of drunkenness should be formed; all the more as it is, of course, the interest of the landlord to press drink on his customers, who, taking draught after draught, easily yield to the suggestion that they should order more. The natural desire on the part of weary working men for pleasant intercourse and amusement receives, therefore, no adequate gratification on these occasions; for in the attempt to satisfy it they are apt to ruin themselves in health and purse, with the worst results to their wives and children.

As one means of combating these evils and difficulties, a Society was formed twenty-two years ago, called the Working Men's Club and Institute Union, for encouraging the establishment of rooms, independent of the public-house, in which working men can enjoy their leisure hours, can meet for conducting their Mutual Aid Societies, &c., and can have facilities for intellectual improvement and social life. Before this Society was formed, a certain amount of useful work in the same direction had been accomplished by the Mechanics' Institutes, originated by Dr. Birkbeck, and warmly supported by Lord Brougham; but these had aimed too exclusively at promoting mere instruction, to suit the need of hard-working artisans and labourers. Several isolated attempts were made later for

bringing together working men and their friends of other classes in a sociable manner; and the formation of Temperance Societies naturally helped forward the movement. Another impulse towards promoting Clubs of working men arose through the starting of the Working Men's College, now in Great Ormond Street, London, by Rev. F. D. Maurice, in 1854, of which the leading idea was, that opportunities for a complete development should, as far as possible, be secured for its members. "We want to help you," said Mr. Maurice, "and we want you to help one another to be *men*; to attain to that noble, manly development of mind and body and spirit for which you were created." The enunciation of this devoted aim helped to keep up a high standard before the minds of those interested in the welfare of working men, and led to further efforts. At last, in 1862, at a meeting arranged by Rev. Henry Solly and a few determined friends, under the presidency of Lord Brougham, the Union above-mentioned, for encouraging Clubs and Institutes for men of the working classes, was set on foot. Mr. Hodgson Pratt joined the Society from the first, and it appears to have been mainly to his unwearying zeal and activity that the present success is due.

The Union has accomplished, with small funds economically managed, and by the energy of its supporters, a really important work during the twenty-two years since its formation. It has been more or less directly instrumental in founding upwards of 1,000 Clubs and Institutes, having 100,000 members. It has given a stimulation to the same aims in innumerable directions. Over 550 of the above-mentioned Clubs are affiliated to the Union, the advantages being very apparent of such a connection. For a small affiliation fee the Clubs can have the use of the circulating library, loans of diagrams, maps, dissolving views, &c. Books, and games, and gymnastic apparatus can be purchased by affiliated Clubs at a discount. Their members can also join in visits to museums and public buildings, and in prize competitions for chess, cricket, athletic sports, choral singing, essays, &c. These Clubs have also the right to ask aid from the experience of the Council in regard to questions of management and rules. Many free lectures have been delivered through the Union in all parts of the kingdom. Men of high attainments give their services for this object; and one important effect of the movement is that intercourse between the different classes of society is increased, in no forced manner, but on the ground of a common wish and endeavour to promote the intellectual and social needs of the Club members. It is satisfactory to find that more than half of these institutions are self-supporting. A small outlay is indispensable at the starting

of each, but this can often be met by a little self-denying exertion on the part of the working men (for example, they have sometimes made the tables and chairs themselves), and resident gentlemen in the neighbourhood are sometimes willing to make preliminary contributions to an object of such far-reaching usefulness.

At the last Annual Meeting of the Union, held on May 22nd, at which the chair was taken by its President, Sir Thomas Brassey, M.P., it was stated that 18 Clubs had joined the Union during the year, and that a more direct representation on the Council was to be henceforward given to the affiliated Clubs. A tribute of hearty gratitude was paid on the occasion in regard to the valuable services of Mr. Hodgson Pratt, who has relinquished the duties of Chairman of Council and Hon. Sec., after many years of devoted work, and has now become a Vice-President. Sir Thomas Brassey remarked in his speech that with increasing observation and experience he attached greater and greater value to the movement which was being carried out by this organization. They heard a great deal of the value of the co-operative principle in relation to matters of business, the distribution of commodities, manufactures, and industrial enterprise; but, valuable as co-operation was in these matters, he ventured to say that it was a greater power in the development of the social condition of the country. He considered co-operative action for purposes of pleasure and recreation, and for purposes of mutual improvement, a very effective engine and instrument. Other speakers also bore their testimony to the excellent work done by the Society.

A large proportion of the Working Men's Clubs founded early by the Working Men's Club and Institute Union have continued to exist, and are prosperous. Some, as might be expected, break up, through want of spirit and perseverance on the part of the managers, through financial carelessness, or owing to difference of opinion on some of the practical vexed questions which constantly arise for discussion. But numerous testimonies could be quoted, showing that the evils, on account of which the Clubs were started have been successfully combatted,—that temperance, thrift, mental cultivation and friendly union have resulted to a most satisfactory extent. The working man himself, surrounded by better influences, acquires improved habits; he is raised in self-respect, in character, and in position. His wife receives regularly the wages that used to be squandered in the public-house. A happier tone pervades the home, the neighbourhood becomes more orderly, and the capacities of a large body of citizens become available for mutual advantage and for the good of the community.

REVIEWS.

A TEXT-BOOK OF DEDUCTIVE LOGIC. By P. K. RAY, D.Sc.,
Professor of Logic and Philosophy, Dacca College. Calcutta: Thacker, Spink, and Co. 1884.

WE in England must cordially welcome a Treatise on Logic from an Indian Professor of Philosophy; showing, as this author does, within the limits which he has prescribed to himself, a thorough command of his subject, as well as of the language in which he writes. The book is short, but full of matter, including all that is usually comprehended under the title of Formal or Deductive Logic. The mode of exposition is clear and exact, and the author has added much to the usefulness of his book by appending to the several chapters a large collection of examples for the student's exercise, in which, as well as throughout the book, are evidences of wide reading and familiarity with the sciences. The book appears to be founded on the well-known English works on Logic and on the treatise of Ueberweg, from which many well-selected passages are quoted, here and there with an acute criticism, and always so introduced as to show that the writer has fairly mastered his authorities. In the few instances in which he meets with conflicting views, he has set them face to face, occasionally, as in the case of the disjunctive syllogism, clearly indicating the difference of linguistic usage on which they rest.

Within the strict limits of Formal Logic there is not much room for difference of view. Presuming the validity of its method, the author's course is plain and straightforward, and he has but little opportunity to show his skill, except in exact expression and perspicuous arrangement. The points of question lie round about upon the borders, and concern the uses and application of the system as an interpretation or a test of true thinking, or a means of intellectual training. On some of these knotty points our author has touched in his earlier chapters, and in the concluding chapter on the Value of the Syllogism; and he has further introduced, here and there, suggestive observations, which we could wish had been considerably multiplied. A few more touches of originality would do much, like springs in the desert, to relieve the

monotony of logical formalities. That our author is not incapable of such touches he has made us aware in his excellent observations on Denotation and Connotation (pp. 51-6), on Contrariety and Contradiction, on Conditional Propositions (p. 77), and in the whole chapter on the Theory of Predication. We can only regret that he has not allowed himself the same freedom throughout. Too often when he lights upon a question of really deeper interest he suddenly draws back, as though treading on forbidden ground. No doubt, to have pursued these questions further would have given quite a different character to the whole book; but would it not have been, for all valid purposes, improved? As to the ultimate purpose of his work our author seems somewhat indeterminate; but we may fairly presume that he would allow a course of Formal Logic to have its chief use as a preparation for more thorough philosophical study; and if so, a few more glimpses of the Promised Land would serve to cheer and stimulate the spirits of the traveller in the Wilderness. It is true that, in his concluding exhortation, our author might seem rather to point to the use of Formal Logic as a safeguard against intellectual bewilderment; but in this we can hardly take him to be serious, except so far as a study of the syllogistic system, like any other exact study, may serve to sharpen the wits, and to determine a habit of precise expression and critical apprehension of the speech of others. Of course it is true that connected discourse may be reduced to the syllogistic form, and that rational thinking, as a continued act of *distinction*, may be said to proceed, in a manner, from generals to particulars; but for threading the labyrinth of spontaneous experience, and extricating the strain of rational thinking from the maze, the canons of Formal Logic, however unimpeachable, afford us no serious assistance. The syllogistic system is, in fact, rather a system of linguistic expression than a genuine system of thought; and from a writer of Formal Logic we should expect a clearer indication of the limits of the subject than we find in this book. There is surely no graver error to which a student is liable than that of mistaking words for thoughts; and if he is led to set too high a value on the functions of Formal Logic, his danger is rather increased than diminished. Our author has indeed given something of a caution where he observes, in treating of the "axiom of identity," that the formal logician

takes no account of *change*. But he proceeds for the most part as though, in expounding the syllogistic system, he was really laying open the secret of rational thinking; at any rate, he fails entirely to make the student aware of the utter inadequacy of the system to represent the subtle vitality of genuine thought, and the reasons of this inherent defect. He is careful to disavow, on the part of the formal logician, all claim to interpret the mystery of Perception and Conception; yet at the outset he sketches a theory of Conception which is open to the gravest exception (pp. 30-2). The obvious objection to this theory is, that Conception is presented as consisting of a series of steps, in which the "analysis of individuals" into their "constituent attributes" is made to precede Comparison. How then, we ask at once, is this previous "analysis" accomplished? Clearly, it is in the act of Comparison itself, which therefore accompanies the analysis, instead of following it. How is it, in fact, that we come to possess any *distinct* perception of individuals at all, unless it be because we are accustomed instinctively to compare them with one another, and so *distinguish* and *discern* their characters? And what, moreover, is the doctrine of Formal Logic itself, but a rough symbolic representation of this continued act of *distinction*, by which experience and knowledge are constituted, as this same intellectual distinction is expressed in the device of language? All attempt to establish a divorce between Perception and Conception must issue in hopeless confusion, and foster a mechanical notion of the *act of thought*, as though it were made up of pieces which could be put together and taken apart like the pieces of a child's puzzle. Surely it is the duty of a logician to guard his pupils against a notion so utterly false, and yet so specious that many writers on the subject appear to be themselves misled by it. Why have so many powerful minds risen in revolt against logical study, but to vindicate the *vital integrity* of genuine thinking against the mischievous tendency of logicians towards anatomising that which cannot be anatomised except symbolically? However, in thus indicating what appears to be a serious defect, let it not be thought that there is any intention to detract from the sterling merits of this vigorous little book, which we cordially accept as a promise of higher work to come.

E. P. SCRYMGOUR.

GUJARÁT AND THE GUJARÁTIS : Pictures of Men and Manners taken from Life. By BEHRAMJI M. MALABARI. Second Edition. Bombay, 1884.

MR. MALABARI is a Parsi gentleman who has been for many years connected with the press in Bombay. He is a poet of no mean order; and to an intimate knowledge of the vernacular languages adds a thorough acquaintance with the English tongue, and a remarkable facility of expressing himself in that language. His writing is indeed too freely interlarded with colloquialisms, not to say slang; but the pictures of people and manners are graphic and life-like.

A man who "began life at twelve, giving private lessons;" who "at sixteen became a regular teacher," and three or four years after "supplied the brains" to a weekly newspaper; and who, after a long literary and public career, is now the editor of the *Indian Spectator*, the leading native English newspaper in Bombay, must needs have a large personal experience, and a wealth of subjects to write about, although, as Mr. Malabari says, he has never been out of India. He is evidently a man of keen observation, appreciative intelligence, genuine humour, and impartial judgment. He is happier in his descriptions of persons than of places; and the book abounds in clever word portraits of notabilities and typical characters, both English and native of various nationalities, some of them flattering, others very much the reverse.

Mr. Malabari, like many other native gentlemen, feels strongly "the absence of cordiality between natives and Europeans," and traces it candidly enough to the "Englishman's sense of political superiority." "For real and lasting good," he says, "we must look to the political advancement of the people of India. The Englishman will never care for the Hindu unless he knows him to be his equal. Nothing can bring about brotherly regard so well as this sense of equality." By this we do not understand the feeling expressed in the phrase "the brotherhood of man," but a something that is to rest on "political advancement," a process which we have watched for years with great interest, and which must, as years pass, proceed in an ever increasing ratio; but we see no reason why cordiality should not exist between those who are only entering on the race and those who have already attained the prize.

The first part of the book contains a number of smart

sketches of English and native official magnates, followed by a series of papers on the people of the Province—the Hindus, the Mahomedans, the Parsis, the Boras, and other minor sects, which, we are bound to say, do not tend to exalt our idea of the national character. Mr. Malabari is a candid critic, and has a lofty ideal to set before his own co-religionists, which they will do well to take to heart.

The remainder of the book is taken up with spirited character sketches, evidently from life, such as the Va'quil, Native Mendicants, Native Medicos (not very flattering to the profession), Native Abuses (*i.e.*, native forms of abuse, a very fertile subject), Home Life in Gujarāt (a most unattractive picture, especially as regards the marriage customs), National Holidays (about which there is, no doubt, a certain charm, but of which the author describes the most unpleasant aspects).

Mr. Malabari wields a powerful pen; but if, as we have reason to believe, his object is the improvement of his countrymen, we question whether that object will be best attained by the exposure of some of the worst features in their lives and characters, and holding them up to the scorn and disgust of those who have reached a higher elevation. Be that as it may, the book is a valuable contribution to our knowledge of Eastern people, and deserves to be widely read.

J. B. KNIGHT.

PROFESSOR MONIER WILLIAMS ON INDIA.

The Boden Professor of Sanscrit, Professor Monier Williams, gave lately his second public lecture on India before the University of Oxford, of which the following is an abstract: He said that the trinity of sacred streams (Ganges, Jumna, and the supposed subterranean Sarasvatī) made Allahabad to a Hindoo the real "abode of God." Self-immolations at the holy confluence used to be common, and even now were with difficulty prevented. A man had simply to load himself with sand, take a boat, and disappear as if by accident in the water. The large railway station at Allahabad was always crowded with natives. These stations were now taking the place of the Mughal camps and becoming the great

meeting-places of the country. They were making English and Hindustani supersede all other mediums of communication. The wonder was that our railway engineers were not worshipped as incarnations of Vishnu. At Mirzapore was a celebrated shellac manufacturer. Several Hindoos engaged in the same occupation had deified him. The most striking feature of Calcutta was the great Maidan, or park-like plain, on one side of which were the palatial residences, which overlooked it as the houses in Park-lane overlook Hyde Park. Here, close to the Imperial museum, was the Indian portion of the International Exhibition. Crowds daily passed through the turnstiles, and not only men, but women. The exhibition opened the doors of many zenana prison-houses, so that the living exhibits were more interesting than the dead. The vast variety of races in bright costumes and many-coloured turbans looked like a moving flower-garden. The Mahrattée, Goojeratee, Cutchee, Scindee, Punjabee, Madrassée—each was known by his head-dress; but the Bengalee Baboo was conspicuous by the absence of head covering. Even Tibetans found their way through the mountain passes. They would probably become the pioneers of future trade and intercourse between India and Tibet. The Government had projected a kind of inter-ethnical exhibition. Living examples of various frontier tribes were sent, such as Nagas, Akhas, Miris, Mishmis, Daflas, Lepchas, Lopas. Dr. Vinton brought singular specimens of Karens; 50,000 of these tribes had been converted to Christianity. Mr. Portman brought his Andamanese. They were coal-black and of stumpy stature. They had no idea of a god. If a man was in mourning for his wife he wore her skull suspended from his arm! One great benefit of the exhibition was, that it made the natives appreciate their own arts and manufactures. It would lead to the revival of old industries and the introduction of new. Mr. Growse had sent some beautiful specimens from Bulandshahr, which proved this. There was a Bengali indigenous school in an annexe. These schools should be encouraged and the vernaculars rescued from deterioration. There was also a Burmese theatre, and the *Ramayana*—a play which lasted for twenty-eight days—was acted in a most amusing manner. The lecturer had witnessed the cremation of Keshub Chunder Sen at Calcutta. About 400 disciples surrounded an immense pyre of sandal-wood and chanted hymns in Gregorian tunes.

A greater contrast to a Christian funeral could not be imagined. India was not yet alive to the services rendered to the cause of progress by one of her greatest religious and social reformers. The Professor had visited Buddha Gaya. Here, 500 years before our era, the young Prince Gautama had become the Buddha after six years of fasting and meditation under a sacred fig-tree. The descendant of this tree has been preserved for centuries; but Burmese pilgrims had killed it, out of excessive devotion, by watering it with eau-de-Cologne. The pilgrims brought strange offerings to the shrine. The Professor saw them deposit flowers, rice, boxes of sardines, biscuits, bottles of scent, and packets of gold-leaf before the image. With the latter they spent hours in gilding the idol. The old pyramidal temple had disappeared; General Cunningham and Mr. Beglar having encased it in a huge pagoda-like structure, painted yellow. They deserved great credit for the wonderful excavations they had made. The excavated quadrangle round the temple was now one of the wonders of India. Myriads of stone stupas, showing the Buddha in about nine attitudes, had been unearthed. The Professor had visited the Buddhist monastery and village near Darjeeling. There he had seen prayer-cylinders and prayer-wheels revolving and prayer-flags flying. The Tibetan prayer, "Reverence to the jewel in the lotus," no one could explain to him. It was probably a confession of man's subjection to the creative force inherent in the universe. A true Buddhist was a materialist and also an evolutionist. But acts alone determined the course of vital development through a continuous chain of transmigration. Good or bad acts, good or bad words, good or bad thoughts, shaped man's future through countless good or bad forms of men, animals and plants. The only safe course was to sit still, do nothing, say nothing, and think of nothing. He protested against the optimistic views of Buddhism now too prevalent. Professor Monier Williams concluded by asking his audience to join him in thanking the Rev. Dr. Malan, who was present, for giving his invaluable library of 2,000 Oriental books to the library of the Indian Institute.

At a recent meeting of Convocation a decree was passed unanimously voting the thanks of the University to the Boden

Professor of Sanscrit, Professor Monier Williams, for his zealous and unwearied efforts in originating and forwarding the establishment of the Indian Institute in Oxford, and to the numerous subscribers, both in this country and in India, who have contributed the funds for the erection of the Institute. The Regius Professor of Divinity, in proposing this decree, dwelt upon the exertions of Professor Monier Williams, who had three times visited and traversed India in the prosecution of his scheme, as well as upon the liberality of the supporters of it—of Mr. Baring, who had contributed £8,000; of the late Mr. Cazalet, a contributor of £1,100; of the successive Viceroys of India, and of many Indian princes, such as the Maharanee of Vizianagram, who sent a donation of £1,000, the Maharajah of Travancore, the Nizam of Hyderabad, and many others; while the Rev. Dr. Malan has lately given his valuable Oriental library of 2,000 volumes to the library of the Institute. The building itself is approaching completion, and will probably be ready for use in the October term.

SHORNALATA: A TALE OF HINDU LIFE.

BY TARAK NATH GANGULI.

Translated for this Journal by Mrs. J. B. KNIGHT.

(Continued from page 165.)

(All rights in this translation remain with the author of the tale.)

[For the assistance of the reader the names of the principal characters in the following chapters are subjoined.]

Sasibhusan, the elder brother.
Pramada, his wife.
Bipin, their son.
Kamini, their daughter.
Bidhubhusan, the younger brother.
Gopal, his son.

Shyama, the female servant.
Nilkamal, a strolling fiddler.
Biprodas Chakravarti, a rich resident of Burdwan.
Shornalata, his daughter.
Hem Chandra, his son.

CHAPTER XXXVII.

CUNNING MEETS CUNNING.

Shashanka Shekar Smritigiri having seen the grandmother to Hem's dwelling, returned the same day to Serampur. Shornalata asked, "How did you leave my brother?"

"There is no need for anxiety. A great improvement has taken place; he will soon be well."

"Shall I be able to go there?"

"Not until he is thoroughly recovered. Why are you so anxious, Shorna? Are you not comfortable here?"

"I lack nothing, but I fear my brother may need tendance. That is the reason I am so anxious."

"You need not be while the lad Gopal is there. No one was ever tended as your brother is being tended by Gopal."

Shornalata was greatly delighted. She made no reply, and Shashanka went to the door and sent a servant to call his neighbour, Haridas Mukerji. The latter appearing, enquired why he was sent for.

"I have a very private matter to speak of." •

"Will you speak of it here, or go elsewhere?"

"Let us go to another place."

They went slowly to the river's bank. The sun had set. From the east were shed abroad the enchanting rays of the full moon. The soft spring air was inexpressibly refreshing. The Ganges flowed towards the sea with a murmuring sound pleasant to the ear. From the neighbouring gardens the scent of many flowers perfumed the air. At this time of delight how many hearts were meditating on the goodness of God! But on what were Shashanka and Haridas consulting? They sat on the grass by the river. Haridas said—

"What have you to say to me? It is night, almost time for prayers."

"What is your hurry? My matter cannot be hurried."

"What is your business? Till I know that I can't tell whether there is hurry."

"Then listen. To-day the gods are favourable to the work we come here to consider at this late hour. That Burdwan girl, the one we spoke of marrying with your son, is now in our hands."

"How can that be?"

"You know that this proposal was made while Bipradas was living. I think he was willing—he never opposed me; but on account of his son the thing was not arranged. That year, before the Puja, Bipradas said to me, 'Your proposal seems suitable, but my son is now old enough to give an opinion; he must be consulted.'"

"I heard all that long ago. Is there anything fresh to hear?"

"Don't be in such a hurry; this is not a matter for haste. Listen attentively to what I say. After the Puja was over, Bipradas said to me, 'Mahashoi, I am not to blame; I am old. It does not do so go against a grown-up son. Hem will not hear of consenting to your proposal.'"

"After that?"

"You know what followed. Many proposals were made,

but all were rejected. The wish of Biprodas was that the proposed husband, whether he had other gifts or not, should have wealth, and should also know a little English."

"My son knows English. Why was he not accepted?"

"You speak truly. I said before, this was the wish of Biprodas; but he was so fond of his son that he forgot everything opposed by his son. Hem's idea was that Shorna need not look for wealth in a husband; that what she was to receive at her father's death would suffice. He desired that the husband should be well educated and a gentleman."

"My son need not be rejected for those reasons. He is a B.A., and in appearance one in ten."

"Yes, in your eyes! If all saw with your eyes, what cause of anxiety would you have about your son?"

"Why—why—why with my eyes?"

"Don't fume, there is no cause. In the matter we have in hand hurry or temper will prevent its accomplishment. I don't say your son is ugly; it is true he is one in ten. How many ugly ones there are in the world there is no saying. Among them your son may be one in fifty, instead of one in ten."

The eyes of Haridas again showing anger, Shashanka continued, "Don't fume, this is no matter for irritation; attend to what I say."

"Well, well, speak."

"In Hem's opinion your son is as a monkey to the man he wishes his sister to marry!"

"Be careful what you say."

"I say nothing carelessly. You have not seen the man; I have seen him. He might be Kartik,* and is well educated. Hem wished to marry him with Shornalata, do you understand? He did wish. One cannot speak of the present, for he is ill with smallpox, so it is of now we must think. If this youth had possessed money the marriage would have taken place before now; but he neither had nor has, nor is there any prospect of his having money."

"How do you know he will not?"

"Therefore, I say, if Hem dies his grandmother will not effect this marriage. She covets money; she would choose the richer bridegroom; she would be guided by me. Now your hope is in the death of Hem. Should he die I could certainly effect the marriage with your son."

"How many days one has to live no one can say. Many recover even after immersion in the Ganges. If it should be my fate to—to——"

The Guru was very benevolent towards his pupil, was he

* Kartik, a beautiful youth, son of the Goddess Durga.

not? He lightly desired Hem's death. He had introduced into the mind of Haridas the idea that he wished, but he did not venture to speak of it openly. He began again, "Should what I speak of occur, there is no need of further speech; but should it not occur, there is another resource. Are you prepared to adopt it?"

"We should try to effect this auspicious marriage while all are living. I am ready to take any means to bring it about. If it should cost trouble or money I shall not hesitate."

"At this moment Hem's illness is considered mortal. A few days will decide the matter. If he die, it is but a matter of a few tears; but if he recover, then, I think, there must be a secret marriage."

"How can that be brought about? A rich man's daughter can't be married like a village girl. The other day I gave in marriage one of my rayats. The girl—a child of five years—was sleeping beside her father. We easily broke open the door; and while four or five men held the father, the child was bribed with a few sweetmeats, and the thing was done. But that can't be done in this case. How to get hold of the bride?"

"I will take that responsibility. With money you can obtain a tiger's milk. If you spare the money, the fault of failure will be yours, not mine. You must find the money and the courage, I will find the brains."

"That I understand; but how will you bring the girl? Let us settle that, and then discuss the rest."

"Don't you credit what I say? I will bring the girl. Now let us speak of the money."

"I want to see the girl first, or to understand the means by which she is to be brought. If I find this suitable, I will enter into the arrangement."

Haridas, being a neighbour of the Guru, understood his character. It was Shashanka's constant practice to obtain money by deceiving people. Hence all this preliminary discussion. Shashanka said, "I told you before not to concern yourself about the girl, but to speak of the money. Let us agree about the money; you need not pay it until you have seen the girl."

"That is reasonable; but it is for you to speak of the money. I will give you what you want."

"This is not a matter for bargaining, it has no price. If I receive ever so little I will help."

Haridas was not to be deceived by the words of Shashanka. If he had not known the Guru's character, he might have supposed he would accept a small sum; but he knew him too well to be pleased at his words. He replied only. "Of that I have no doubt."

"Is that all you can say? Come to business."

After much hesitation Haridas said, "If the thing be brought to a successful issue, I will give you a thousand rupees."

"Are you dreaming, brother?"

"Why, why?"

"Do you know the amount of money coming to the girl by the will?"

"That money is like the fish in the sea; until we get it we can't believe in it. Do you suppose it is for the sake of that money that I am willing to take all this trouble about the marriage?"

"Oh, not at all! why should I think so? The girl cannot get a husband, she is full of defects; therefore you are good enough to propose to marry her with your son."

Haridas was not deficient in cunning, but Shashanka was an expert. Haridas, laughing, said, "Not so; not so."

"Yes, but indeed it is so; it is quite for the girl's benefit you are acting, and to induce me to assist in it you are offering me a thousand rupees. You are a very benevolent man, a benefactor to the country. Is it not so?"

"I only spoke in jest."

"Then leave jesting and speak in earnest."

"I will give you 5,000 rupees."

"Still jesting; you will not be serious!"

"I am not jesting now. It is not likely that the money bequeathed in the will exceeds 15,000 rupees; and in the first place, if we perform the marriage by stealth, and thus get the money, there will be a law suit. Then if the will should be disputed! Why say 'if'? it is sure to be. Hem will not easily resign 15,000 rupees. How much it will cost to obtain a decree! and besides that there are many expenses. After all this there will be little for me to get. We must look before and after."

"You will be involved in law suits, and I shall be caught in a snare; is it not so? That Hem is like an Englishman, he pays no respect to the Guru. I fear to approach him, lest he should even deny me a salute; would he readily let me go? If I get something out of this affair, I may endure it: I have but one word to say. I must have half, else I will not act."

"Impossible!"

"Then further discussion is useless. Let us go."

Shashanka was rising, but Haridas caught his hand, saying, "I will think about it and let you know to-morrow. Now tell me how you will get the girl."

"She is in my house."

"No!"

"Truly; would I speak falsely standing by the Ganges at the hour of prayer?"

"Can I see her?"

"Yes."

Then the two descending to the water, performed their evening rites. The craftsman thinks but lightly of his craft. The milkman drinks no milk. The confectioner eats no sweets; nor does the physician take drugs. Wine-sellers do not drink wine, and if there is no one present the priest does not perform worship. Shashanka, after some slight observances, said, "Get through quickly, Haridas, and come away." But as the performance of religious rites was not the craft of Haridas, he in no degree stinted his daily ceremonies. On their way back they stopped at the house of Shashanka, where Haridas obtained a sight of Shornalata, and perceived that she was indeed in their hands.

CHAPTER XXXVIII.

IN THE NET.

Hem Chandra was now fairly recovered. Each day found him better than the preceding, but he was not yet able to leave his bed. Gopal, as before, sat beside him day and night. Hem cared for nothing from any other hand. Gopal must feed him, wash him, raise him in the bed, chat to him. Gopal was Hem's life. Shashanka came daily to Calcutta by rail, and returned in the evening. The gratitude of Hem's grandmother was extreme; she had no suspicion of his design in these repeated visits.

Shornalata also felt extremely grateful to Shashanka. That he should trust no one, but go himself daily to bring news of Hem! Could there be greater kindness? Shornalata was ever waiting in the doorway to meet him on his return, and as soon as she saw him in the distance she ran to ask his news. One day she said, "Thakur Mahashoi, the debt I owe you can never be paid either in this or in many other lives. It is because you go daily yourself that I am still here, for if you did not I should have gone secretly to Calcutta." Some kind words from the priest drew tears from Shornalata, but her speech was as a spear in his heart. When robbers enter a house they do not attack children; a fisherman returns all the small fry to the sea.

Shashanka, cruel as he was, felt subdued by the frank-hearted Shornalata's words. For a moment he knew himself. The grateful tears she shed fell as drops of boiling lead upon his heart. But how long does a sprinkling of water last in the desert? With the departure of Shornalata from his presence, attracted by the enchantment of money, he went to the house of Haridas, whom he found reading. "What!" he exclaimed, "are you engaged in study, Mahashoi?"

"Come in. I am writing up accounts."

"Well, we must set to work. In another week it will be too late."

"I am not delaying, but I cannot comply with your exorbitant demands. I am not able to give half the money bequeathed."

Shashanka perceived that if there were delay he would gain nothing; he had better take what he could get, so he said, "What are you willing to give?"

"Six thousand rupees."

Shashanka consented, saying, "Well, then, rub the boy with *haldi*.* Day after to-morrow the wedding must take place."

As the bird dances with fearless heart in the net of the fowler, so Shornalata dwelt joyously in Shashanka's house, and Hem progressed daily towards health. As he was fully cared for, what cause had Shornalata to be anxious? Rising early, she enjoyed herself with the Guru's daughter and the neighbour's children of her own age, and slept at night with a light heart. She dreamed not that she had fallen into a net.

One evening Shashanka was engaged in performing worship in the river. One of his little children could not be coaxed to rest; it cried incessantly for Shornalata. Unless she were beside him he would not lie on his bed. Shashanka's wife having striven in vain to get the child to sleep, called Shornalata. The girl ran, saying, "Ma, why did you call me?" As Shashanka was the family Guru, Shornalata addressed his wife as mother. "Come and sit here a little; I cannot get this child to sleep."

Shornalata complying, the child without another word lay down. To keep him quiet, the girl laid herself down beside him, and, the spring air blowing gently upon them, she fell asleep. Shashanka returned from the river and called his wife. They entered the bedroom together, and the priest asked, "Who is lying beside the child?"

"Shornalata."

"Is she sleeping or waking?"

Shornalata awoke at the entrance of Shashanka, but hearing him whispering with his wife she pretended to sleep. The wife, looking into Shornalata's face, said, "She sleeps."

"Then come this way, gently."

The wife obeyed. Showing two keys, Shashanka whispered, "You see these two keys; one belongs to the outer door, the other to the inner. I have locked both. See that no one leaves the house."

"Why not? Why should we not go out?"

"What business is that of yours?"

"It is my business. If you don't explain I will expose the matter."

* *Haldi*—Turmeric—one of the ceremonies preceding marriage.

Then Shashanka explained his design. His wife shivered, and Shornalata's heart trembled. Observing that his wife sighed deeply, the priest said, "You know me. If through your means my plans fail, I will" — Thus far he spoke audibly; then, in a very low tone he uttered some words twice, and left the room. Shornalata could not breathe. How was she, seeming to be asleep, to wake suddenly? To bring this about she pinched the child secretly, who thereupon screamed; and Shornalata, rubbing her eyes, rose from the bed. The priest's wife, sighing deeply, asked, "Were you asleep?" Shornalata said "Yes," and went out, first to the inner door; she found it locked. Then to the outer door; it was locked on the outside. She was as a bird in a cage. So long she had known no discomfort in the house; but now the air of the place seemed like poison, as if it would be hard to sustain life in it. She ran back to the room whence she had come. The priest's wife was frightened at her looks, so much had she changed. Shornalata sat on the floor, almost deprived of sense.

The Guru's wife asked, "What has happened?"

Shornalata could no longer conceal her trouble. Weeping, she exclaimed, "I have heard all. You are about to destroy me. Give me poison to drink!"

The woman's heart melted at Shornalata's words; she was not cruel, like her husband. She sat down near Shornalata, and comforted her, saying, "Do not weep; I will find a means to save you." Shornalata clasped her feet in gratitude. The woman raised her from the ground and wiped her eyes; then asked, "Can you read and write?"

"A little."

"Could you write a letter?"

"Yes; but to whom? My brother cannot rise from his bed. It will be all the same whether I write to him or no."

"Is there no one else? no one who can fetch you away?"

Shornalata blushed. With downcast eyes she asked, "To whom could I write?"

"I have heard there is someone in your dwelling; what is his name? Gopal, is it not? Yes, yes; why not write to him?"

Shornalata blushed more deeply. "If I write to my brother, he will see the letter."

"What is the use of writing to your brother? he is in bed."

Still looking down, Shornalata answered, "If I write to my brother, Gopal Dada will see the letter."

Shashanka's wife brought pen, ink, and paper, and Shornalata wrote her letter. Early next morning, when the maid-servant went to buy provisions in the market, she took the letter with her secretly and posted it.

CHAPTER XXXIX.

GOPAL'S IMPRISONMENT.

According to invariable custom at the Post Office, the Sahibs' (English gentlemen's) letters are delivered first; and afterwards, if there be time, and if the messenger be not too much fatigued, he will condescend to deliver the letters of other people. But should he be tired, or should the distance be great, the letters are pretty sure to remain in the bag. When there is an accumulation of letters for that spot, he will walk thither some fine afternoon to deliver them. Shornalata's letter should have reached Hem's house early on the morning of the day after it was posted; but, thanks to the above-mentioned custom, because it was addressed to a place in the outskirts of the town, it was not delivered till three in the afternoon. The letter bore Hem's address. Gopal had never seen Shornalata's handwriting, as all the home letters were written by the Gomashita. Not supposing it to be a home letter, he did not open it, nor did he wake Hem, who was asleep. Presently Hem woke, and Gopal gave him the letter. "From Shornalata!" exclaimed Hem. "Read it, Gopal." Gopal took it with a trembling hand, but he said nothing of its contents. Hem asked, "What does she say?" Gopal put the letter carelessly down, saying, "She only writes to ask how you are."

Satisfied, Hem turned over on his side; but if he had looked at Gopal he would have seen that his face was crimson as the hybiscus flower, and that the water stood on his forehead. Promising to return soon, Gopal took the letter, and going below to the grandmother, sent Shyama to Hem's bedside. Then he read Shornalata's letter to the grandmother, who, on hearing its contents, trembled with passion, and began to abuse the Guru. Gopal said, "Please not to make so much noise; if the Dada hears, he will be greatly disturbed. I must start at once. It is now four o'clock, and at six the marriage is to take place. If I do not go I shall lose the train." Gopal put on his outer garment, took a walking-stick, and then said, "Do not tell anyone of this matter, and please to remain here; if you go upstairs it will all come out. If the Dada asks for me, say I am gone on my own business to Bhovanipur, and that I may not be able to return." He went out, but quickly returning, asked for some money. The grandmother, opening a box, gave him a bank note, which he put in his pocket and set off.

Fortunately, he met an empty hack carriage in the street, and said to the driver, "If you can get me to the Howrah Ghat before the train starts I will give you a handsome reward."

The driver checked his horse, and Gopal jumped into the carriage. At the touch of the whip the horse set off at great speed. Presently they arrived at the Ghat, when Gopal found the ferry-boat just ready to start. He turned to see the driver, when he found the note in his pocket to be one for twenty rupees, and he was obliged to go to a money changer hard by, to whom he said, "Give me fifteen rupees, and the remainder to this man." The money changer complied, and Gopal rushed off to the steamer, which, as though in mockery of him, started as he came up. There being no remedy, he hired a boat, saying to the boatman, "Get me across before the train starts and I will give you a rupee," putting the coin in the man's hand as he spoke. "I will do it," was the reply. The boat was loosened, and they reached the further shore just as the first whistle sounded. Gopal leaped on to the bank, but the boatman demanded his fare.

"I have paid it already."

"That was a gift; you have not paid the fare."

Gopal went on without heeding, but the man obstructed his going. The poor lad flung down another rupee, and arrived at the station in time to see the train start. He sprang boldly on the footboard without waiting to get a ticket, and entered a carriage. His head swam, and his whole body became benumbed. Since the beginning of Hem's illness he had neither eaten nor slept properly. In addition to this, the labour he had gone through to catch the train quite upset him. He felt ready to faint, and laid himself down in the carriage. Cooled by the air, he fell asleep. Where was Serampur? where Shornalata? Gopal had never slept so soundly. No matter how often they stopped, no matter who got out or who got in, Gopal still slept. At nine in the evening the train stopped at Bardwan. An official came round collecting the tickets. There was a great deal of noise; still Gopal did not wake. The official threw the light of his lantern into the carriage; only Gopal was in it. The guard having called him repeatedly, he woke up, asking, "Is this Serampur?"

"Are you dreaming? This is Bardwan!"

The news took away Gopal's senses; he sat without moving.

"Give me your ticket?"

With a deep sigh Gopal said, "I have no ticket; take the fare."

"I've long seen that you have no ticket. Come to the station-master." And seizing his hand, the guard took Gopal to the station. The station-master was not there, so the head babu gave orders that Gopal should be detained for the night.

The trouble of that night to our hero may be imagined; it

cannot be described.' At first he thought, "I have lost Shornalata for my whole life." He had never been told so plainly, but he had the idea that it was intended that he should marry Shornalata. Now this hope was cut off at the root. Again he reproached himself, "Why did I not tell Dada the contents of the letter? Why did I take on myself the responsibility of defeating the Guru? Perhaps if Dada had heard he would have found some other remedy; and since I undertook the task, why did I not carry it out at the risk of my life? Why did I go to sleep? How can I return and show my face to Dada? He believes in me implicitly, but what have I done? I have destroyed Shornalata. If I had read the letter to him this could not have come about. Shornalata will certainly kill herself after the marriage. I must do so also; how otherwise can I expiate this sin? Alas! Shornalata is blaming her brother; she does not know that it is I who have destroyed her."

Gopal passed the night in these lamentations. At last morning dawned. He did not give a thought to the fact that he was in prison. "I," he reflected, "shall be set free in the morning; but Shornalata's chains are riveted for life."

SURGEON-GENERAL CORNISH ON FEMALE EDUCATION IN MADRAS.

At the Convocation of the University of Madras, held March 28th, the address was given by the Hon. Surgeon-General Cornish, C.I.E., and in the course of it he made the following remarks in regard to the importance and the progress of female education in India:—

"Education in India, as you know, is a very one-sided affair, insomuch that until recently it was confined to the male sex alone, and at the present moment the education of the female sex is pursued under grave disadvantages. The warmest friends of the people of India cannot but entertain serious misgivings as to the outcome of a system which practically excludes one sex from the advantages of mental training and discipline; and, having the opportunity granted me of speaking, I cannot pass over this grave fault in your educational system in silence. The influence of a mother on her offspring is most powerful and far-reaching. Her physical and mental characteristics pass to the fruit of her womb, and her children learn of her instinctively, before they are capable of speech or intelligent thought. It is

the opinion of eminent men who have studied the subject, that the transmission of certain mental and physical attributes of a race is more commonly influenced by the mother than the father; and the simple fact that nearly all the men of high eminence in science, art, and other pursuits, now living, have descended from mothers of more than average mental vigour and capacity, should be enough to cause us to ponder whether the Indian system is a wise one, or suited to the development of the highest intellectual power of the people. The gulf between the educated man and uncultured woman is very wide.

“So strongly have the advantages of the lopsided system of culture prevailing in India appeared to me, that I have often thought and said that, given the position of a dictator, and with full command of the State purse-strings, I would spend no public money on education other than the primary teaching of both sexes, and the higher training of the future wives and mothers of India, until the existing disparity between the culture of the two sexes had in a great degree ceased! But, gentlemen, so heroic a treatment of the subject is unnecessary; I am delighted to acknowledge that you have already recognised the evil, and that every graduate of this University is doing his best, consciously or unconsciously, to cure it. Kindly give me your attention to the following figures. Twenty years ago the number of girls ‘under instruction’ in this Presidency was 3,763. In 1873-4 the numbers were 17,113. Nine years later, in 1882-3, the female pupils had increased to 43,671. Thus, in the space of nineteen years, the female pupils in school had increased by about 40,000, and last year they exceeded by more than ten times the numbers at school in the official year 1883-4. These results appear to me to prove that an important revolution in native thought, as to the position of woman, is actually in progress in our very midst; and, seeing that the extension of female education has proceeded step by step with the dispersion of the graduates and undergraduates of this University throughout the land, I cannot dispossess myself of the belief that there is a close connection between the two phenomena. I believe that the training and education of the women of India is a necessary consequence of your own culture. You will not rest satisfied until female members of your families are able to meet you on a common intellectual level. Man’s imperfect nature craves for sympathy in his toils, aspirations, doubts, and anguish; and where shall he find the sympathy and loving help for which his soul yearns, if not amongst the women of his family, who know his strength and his weakness, and love him none the less for his imperfections? The need of intellectual companionship in the home is a powerful motor, impelling you to set the educa-

tional system of women on a satisfactory basis. But this is not the only force at work. A stronger one probably is, the natural desire of women not to be left on a confessedly lower level than yourselves, to say nothing of your own honest convictions that educated woman is best fitted, by her counsel, sympathy and encouragements, to strengthen your own efforts in mental and moral advancement. These forces are silently, but most surely and irresistibly, influencing thought and conduct. Every graduate who leaves these walls, if he is himself imbued with the true spirit of learning, of necessity becomes an advocate of female education. The difficulties before you in putting your desires into practice are neither few nor unimportant; but I doubt not that the women upon whom the spirit of knowledge and wisdom has already descended will be your strongest supporters in those domestic reforms which may favour the sound teaching of useful knowledge to the females of India. Your most ancient law-giver, though his ideas of woman's fitness for learning were not in accord with modern thought, forcibly impresses upon you the obligation of doing honour to woman. He says, 'Where females are honoured, there the deities are pleased; but where they are dishonoured, there all religious acts become fruitless;' and again, 'Where female relations are made miserable, the family of him who makes them so very soon wholly perishes; but where they are not unhappy, the family always increases.' How can you honour and add to the happiness of your womankind better than by making them partakers of your intellectual pursuits, as well as sharers of your domestic joys and sorrows?"

A NEW ENTERPRISE—WOOLLEN MILLS FOR INDIA.

There are many raw materials which India exports, and which, manufactured in foreign countries, are sent back to India. Their use is very costly. Before cotton mills had been started in Bombay, we used to consign to England and Europe almost all the cotton grown by us, where it was worked into cloth, and the cloth so woven was supplied to us at a cost much dearer than in England. But now we have been able to clothe ourselves by the same kind of cloth at a very cheap rate. Yet we do not make such use of our cotton as could be wished; for, except a particular description of cloth that is manufactured here, no one has yet ventured to turn out cloth of different textures and kinds. We are thus still at the mercy of England. India produces in large quantities *myrabollams* and other

articles, which are exported to England in immense quantities, and which return thence in the form of paint. Many useful articles of Indian growth are thus very profitably utilised by foreign manufacturers. Thus we supply all ingredients; and, to our great chagrin, we buy the same, though in a different form, at a rate very much dearer than that we have supplied at. If the natives of India only were to know how to make the right use of the products of their own country, they would, no doubt, put themselves in an enviable position in the eyes of foreign nations. Possessed of the great advantage of cheap labour, they of India ought to enter into a formidable competition with almost all the countries of the world. It is worth anybody's while arguing on and drawing attention to a subject which has more or less escaped the notice of enterprising people in India.

Those who have visited the fertile land of the Punjab must have been surprised at the fat, plump sheep that are found there. Nature has never been sparing in its gifts, even to the meanest creatures on the surface of the earth. The Punjab is well known for the two extremes, as regards its climate—its bitter cold and its oppressive heat. Who can cease wondering at the means which kind nature has supplied the gentle sheep, to protect themselves against its own eccentricities, in the shape of their smooth, soft, and warm woollen covering? In the Punjab, as we get near the hills, this valuable commodity is found so soft and smooth as to outbid any other kind of wool in any market of Europe, or that of Australia. But the great pity is, that this most valuable light article is thrown away, or uncared for, like any rubbish, in a thickly populated place. Cashmere shawls are famous all over the world. This is an important article of Indian merchandise, which royalty and the upper ten thousand in England not only feel as a necessity for ordinary wear in winter, but as the principal dress to grace and beautify their persons all the seasons round. The comfort supplied, and the decoration and grace lent, by this valuable article to the civilised part of the world can never be over-estimated. In colour it is brown, white, and black. It can safely be said that the only occupation of the people of Cashmere and Amritsur is to weave shawls with their own hands. No one has yet thought of, it as the proper article to be turned out by machines. Perhaps the shawls worked by machines would not be so strong and good of texture as those now being worked by hand. But the same stuff which produces these shawls could be made use of in the manufacture of various articles of dress. The stock of this stuff will be always great for trying such an experiment.

Why not then open Mills in the Punjab or Bombay for the manufacture of shawls, rugs, and blankets, and many other articles of daily use? In weaving shawls, coarse rugs, and blankets by the hand, much time is lost, and the consequent cost is much greater; but if they were manufactured by means of English machinery, we venture to say that the same could be made, if not more, at least equally stout, durable, and far more cheap. It is a fact that rich Cashmere shawls of the best quality could not be manufactured by us, because we can never hope to gain the practical skill in their manufacture which the artists of Cashmere can command; and supposing for the nonce that we did possess their peculiar skill, there can never be a large market for any shawls other than those of Cashmere, simply because the shawls of Cashmere have been universally renowned. Yet we dare say that we could make large profits only by making coarse rugs and blankets by machinery. We, who inhabit warmer climes, can have no idea of the necessity there is, among those who live in cold regions, for coarse rugs and blankets. They are greatly prized by those who have to do out-door work in winter, such as the police and the military. It might be asked, Why should there not have been a great demand for the rugs and blankets made in the Punjab for the use of the army, if they are said to be so very valuable? But invariably a demand of a certain article in market goes with its cheapness, notwithstanding its usefulness. At present all classes of people could not afford to buy them, owing to their scarcity and dearness. If these articles were manufactured on a large scale, their prices would necessarily fall, and people from all parts would come forward to purchase them. Again, by the aid of English machinery, and through the exertions of intelligent English artists, we might be able to manufacture such excellent rugs and blankets from the Punjab and other wool, that we might not probably be able to meet the vast demand which would arise for them. The very look of our country-made rugs and blankets is so coarse and unsightly that their manufacture can be vastly improved by means of mechanical labour and English skill. If we manufactured woollen fabrics without making use of false colours, the frauds that are committed in the English markets in the name of woollen materials would be greatly prevented.

Apart from the demand of foreign countries, the want that is felt by the Indian army alone is so great that the woollen cloth turned out by the English machinery would not prove sufficient to meet it. A mill of this description, by the name of the Egerton Woollen Mills, was a short time ago opened in the Punjab. Though it is only eleven months since it was

started, it has been showing good earnings. As yet this Mill has not come to the notice of the people or of the Government, but very great hopes are being entertained for its future. It requires publicity for its success. It is the opinion of one of our Commanders-in-Chief that the out-turn there would beat even the stuff manufactured in England. It imparts a great deal of warmth at a cheap price. Men of experience say that if the Punjab wool were properly worked and utilized, such excellent rugs and blankets might be made there as might stand against the most bitter cold of England or Cabul.

This is the right time for the people of India to launch into such enterprises, profitable and useful to all intents and purposes. This is again a fit opportunity for the encouragement of such enterprise, as our noble Governor-General is particularly interested in the development of commerce, the encouragement of trade, and the refinement of native art and manufacture.

Broach.

NUSSERWANJEE SHERIARJEE GINWALLA.

The following correspondence relates to the preceding article:—

To G. F. Sheppard, Esq., Police and Revenue Commissioner,
N.D., Guzerat, Bombay Presidency.

Dear Sir,—I beg to return by to-day's post the memorandum on silk in India which you were kind enough to send me, and in the perusal of which I was very much interested. Surely, Mr. Liotard has laid the public, and especially the commercial world, under his obligation, for his labour and energy spent on this important subject.

I have prepared a short article on "Woollen Mills in India," for the press; but before despatching the same for publication, I want to profit by your able suggestions on the subject, derived from your wide experience.

I forward the same by to-day's post.

Yours most obediently,

12th March, 1884.

NUSSERWANJEE S. GINWALLA.

To Nusserwanjee Sheriarjee Ginwalla, Esq.

Dear Sir,—I return your paper. I think you should get figures to show amount of wool *exported*, and whether this is decreasing or increasing.

The *Hertford* Mills, the Cawnpore Mills, and others, are, I believe, doing large business. I have bought cloth from the former *establishment*, the great-coats of the police force in this division, and it was *excellent*; but I do not know whether Indian wool is used or *Australian*.

pr
16th March, 1884.

Yours truly,

G. F. SHEPPARD.

of:

PRESIDENCY COLLEGE, MADRAS.

The Prize Distribution at the Madras Presidency College took place on May 1st, and was presided over by Rajah Sir T. Madava Row, K.C.S.I. In his address to the students, the Chairman made the following remarks on the responsibility attaching to the educated class of native gentlemen :—

The difficulty, the delicacy, and the responsibility attendant on the position of the educated native gentleman are great indeed. In the first place, remember that, in spite of the great progress of education, the educated body is by no means strong in numbers compared with the vast mass of the population. What weakness there exists in this respect must be recognised, not ignored; I mean this to be a warning against undertaking anything beyond existing strength. There is something of isolation as well as something of prominence in the position of the educated native gentleman. By the mass of his countrymen he is regarded with more than ordinary attention—he is regarded with curiosity, even with a shade of suspicion or of jealousy. There cannot, of course, be complete harmony of views between the one and the other. Education must inevitably make a difference; but any alienation of feeling thus arising ought to be reduced to a minimum by means of a considerate and conciliatory disposition on the part of the educated native gentleman. This is all the more necessary where social and religious reforms are concerned. Here hot haste and fiery zeal are to be avoided. It would not be reasonable to expect that one stroke of logic would shatter to pieces the stratified ideals of an immeasurable antiquity. The process often to be preferred is like that of diluted acids acting slowly and surely on the most obdurate material. In other words, to be practically useful guides, we must not too much outrun the multitude to follow us in the path of progress. We should secure the respect and confidence of the people, and lead them on from step to step. I have stated how the educated native gentleman is watched by the great mass of the community. This is not all. He is also keenly watched by the English people, whether in India or in Europe. The English people, under a lofty sense of duty, have inaugurated a system of liberal education in India. They are naturally most anxious to know what the exact result of this noble and unparalleled experiment will be. Will it be good, ^{more} ^{and} ^{simple?} or will it be a mixture of good and evil? ^{It is} ^{to be} ^{determined} if the latter, will good or evil preponderate? With a view to determine this, the eyes of the dominant race are upon the educated native gentleman. He is accordingly being examined both telescopically and microscopically. Is he loyal at heart to the

Government which has rescued India from the most hopeless anarchy and misrule? Will he cordially support order, peace, and progressive improvement? Will he make a better citizen? Will he make a better public servant? Will his moral as well as his intellectual standard be raised to the extent desired? It entirely rests with the educated class to furnish satisfactory answers to these questions. I have every hope that everything in these respects will turn out as well as may be wished. This hope is the result of observation and study, better than superficial. Yet it cannot be denied that some doubt survives in some quarters. I fervently pray that the educated class may be able, ere long, to put an end to all doubt in this direction. This is no light matter to be treated with indifference. It is a matter which will affect important native interests and important native destinies. I have tried to show how the educated native gentleman is keenly watched above, below, and around. To this fact we must be always alive. There is every need for his conducting himself with circumspection, care, and thoughtfulness. The quality most required of him at this critical period is—judgment. Life consists of a succession of innumerable acts; and excepting those of mere routine, every act has to be more or less directed by judgment, in order that the right path may be steadily kept and all deviation prevented. I wish to impress upon the educated native gentleman the great importance of cultivating the faculty of judgment.

INDIAN INTELLIGENCE.

We learn that several liberal donations were made after the laying of the foundation-stone of the Town Hall at Meerut by H.R.H. the Duke of Connaught, an account of which was given in the April *Journal*. Amongst other donors, Hafiz Sheikh Abdool Karim Sahib, of the Cantonment, gave the munificent sum of Rs. 15,000 to the building fund. This gentleman has shown on other occasions great interest in public movements; and, as one proof of this, he has erected a Hospital at Meerut, the only one within the city.

The Anniversary Meeting of the Madrassa-i-Azam, and of the Government Mahomedan Middle School, Mylapore, Madras, was held on April 23rd, in the Presidency College Hall, under the presidency of the Chief Justice, Sir Charles Turner. The Madrassa is probably the oldest Mussulman educational institution in Southern India. In 1859 it was reorganised and placed on its present footing. The Government Middle School was established in 1864 at the requisition of the leading Mahomedan gentry of Mylapore, Madras. Sir Charles Turner spoke in his

address on the importance of greater efforts being made by the Mahomedans of Southern India to prepare their youths for the public services, referring to the example set by the Mahomedans of the N.W. Provinces, whose energy and independence have led them to promote education vigorously, and thus to enjoy their full share of public offices. With larger encouragement the Madrassa and the School at Madras might become efficient institutions, and by preparing teachers might help to elevate and improve the position of the two millions of Mahomedans in the Presidency.

The Forty-second Anniversary of Pacheappa Mudaliar's Charities, Madras, was held on April 15th, Hon. A. Mackenzie in the chair. The number of pupils under instruction at the Madras Schools of the Trust is 887, and in the Mofussil Branch Schools 446, total 1,323. Pacheappa's High School now prepares for the F. A. University Examination, and last year 17 passed out of 32 candidates, two being in the First Class. Arrangements are being made for enclosing as a gymnasium a piece of ground granted by Government for the purpose. Among the institutions of these charities an Orphanage, called the Chemgulroya Naicker's Hindu Orphanage and Industrial School, started in March of last year, appears to be doing useful work. The Chairman urged at the meeting the importance of providing practical classes in connection with manufactures, and for such subjects as book-keeping, shorthand, &c., so as to prepare the students for various employments independent of Government Service.

The Bhooj School of Art in Cutch, which has been in existence six years, has now nearly 50 pupils. Its object is to afford technical and artistic instruction to the workmen of Cutch, in order to keep up the native arts of that part of India, where silver work, embroidery, &c., have long been carried on, but latterly without much originality of design. The School was started through the efforts of Colonel Barton, under Mr. J. D. Esperance, formerly of the Bombay School of Art. The Dewan of Cutch, Rao Bahadur Monibhai Jushbai, takes great interest in the institution.

We understand that Miss Putlibai D. Wadia, the young Parsee lady who last year gained the Bai Shringar Prize offered by Mr. Mahipatram Rupram, for the best translation into correct Gujaratee of Chambers's short stories, intends translating into that language her Majesty the Queen's book, *More Leaves from the Journal of our Life in the Highlands*, and that the requisite permission for her to do so has already been applied for.

Dustur Jamasji Menocharji Jamaspana, of Bombay, who is well known as a scholar in Pehlvi, has received the degrees of Doctor of Philosophy and of Master in Fine Arts from the University of Tübingen, Germany.

A Society was formed two years ago at Tanjore called the Tanjore People's Association, of which Hon. A. Sashia Sastriar, C.S.I., was the first President. Its object is to promote public interests, especially in the Tanjore district. The Report of the Education Commission is one subject that has occupied the Executive Committee in the past year. The first annual Report of the Society has been published.

Mr. Cowasji B. Sethna's "Essay on the Advantages and Means of diffusing a Knowledge of Natural Sciences in India," for which he gained the Manekji Limji Gold Medal, has been published by the University of Bombay.

We regret to record the death in the last month of two Members of the Council of the National Indian Association.

Mr. Henry Ives Hurry Goodeve, M.D., formerly Professor of Anatomy in the University of Calcutta, died on June 17th at his residence, Cook's Folly, Stoke Bishop, near Bristol. He graduated at the University of Edinburgh M.D. in 1828. He became a Fellow of the Royal College of Surgeons (London) in 1860, and was also a Fellow of the Royal College of Surgeons, and a retired Surgeon of the Bengal establishment. For many years he had lived near Bristol, and had acted as Magistrate and Deputy-Lieutenant for Gloucestershire. Dr. Goodeve's name appears on the original list of the Committee of this Association, at its formation in Bristol by the late Miss Carpenter, in 1871. His valuable and successful efforts at Calcutta to promote medical training for native students will never be forgotten, and he not long ago expressed his interest in the recent movement for extending the employment of medical women in India, in regard to which he considered that the training in Medicine of native women would be of great use. Dr. Goodeve died at the age of 77.

Mrs. Cadell, wife of the late Captain H. M. Cadell, Royal Artillery, died at Florence on June 17th. She had been for several years an active member of the Council and Committee of the National Indian Association, and she contributed many valuable Reviews and other articles to this *Journal*. Mrs. Cadell had spent much of the early part of her life in India. She had studied Persian with considerable success, and she was known in other lines of literary work. Her interest was genuine and thoughtful in questions connected with the progress of education in India, which she had hoped to revisit in order to prosecute her Oriental studies.

PERSONAL INTELLIGENCE.

Mr. A. Chaudhuri (St. John's) was one of the successful candidates in the Cambridge Mathematical Tripos, Parts I. and II., and was placed among the Junior Optimes.

Mr. C. Golaknath, B.A. (Christ's), has been approved for the degree of LL.M.

Kumar Shri Harbhanji (Trinity) has been allowed an Ordinary B.A. degree.

Mr. S. Nabi Ullah (St. John's) has been allowed an Ordinary B.A. degree.

Mr. Ramdas Chubildas (Christ's) has passed in the Additional Subjects of the Previous Examination in the Second Class, and has been elected to a Scholarship of £30 for proficiency in Sanskrit, from the result of the College Examination.

Mr. Inayatullah (Trinity Hall) has passed in Part II. of the Previous Examination of the University of Cambridge in the Second Class.

Mr. Jamssetjee Framjee Kolapurwalla has passed the L.R.C.S. (Edinburgh) Examination.

At the recent Examination of the Inns of Court, the Council of Legal Education awarded to Mr. C. Golaknath a certificate of having satisfactorily passed a public examination.

Dr. J. A. Simoens has obtained a Qualification in Sanitary Science in the University of Durham; and in the Competitive Examination in the College of Medicine, Newcastle-upon-Tyne, he gained the Silver Medal and First Certificate of Honour.

Arrivals.—Mr. and Mrs. Cowasjee Jehanghier, from Bombay. Mr. Mahomed Ali Rogay, Mr. Bomonjee Ardeseer Wadia, Mr. Ardeseer Nowrojee Daver, Mr. Furdoonjee Limji Batliboi, Mr. Dhanjibhoy Bomanjee Mistry, and Mr. Pestonjee Hormusjee Patack, all from Bombay; and Mr. C. C. Lalkaka, from Ahmedabad.

Departure.—Mr. G. C. Bose, Bengal Agricultural Scholar, 1881.

We acknowledge with thanks Nitichintamani, a Moral Reader in Kanarese—Bangalore, 1884; *and* The Persian Teacher, by Khan Bahadur Haji Ghulam Muhammad, Munshi and Sons, Vol. I., No. 5—Bombay, 1884.



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THE REPORT OF THE INDIAN EDUCATION COMMISSION.

In the May number of this *Journal* I gave a brief sketch of the educational policy and measures of the British Government in India, and noticed some of the suggestions made in the recent Report of the Indian Education Commission. It was impossible to do more within the limits of a short article, and I therefore propose on this occasion to draw attention to some other points which have a bearing upon this important and difficult subject. I also wish to say a few words with reference to two papers which have recently appeared. The first of these is a very useful analysis of the Report of the Commission, interspersed with comments upon some of its recommendations, which has been prepared by the Rev. J. Johnston, the zealous and able Honorary Secretary to a body in this country, which is styled the General Council on Education in India. The other is an article by Mr. Frederick Pincott, which appeared in the June number of this *Journal*, and which criticises, in language of vehement censure, the failure of the Commission to recommend certain radical changes, which the writer deems to be called for, both in the management of public education in India and in the whole educational policy of the Indian Government. I shall, however, reserve my observations on these two papers until the conclusion of this article.

Among the many difficulties which educationists in India have to deal, none is greater than that which arises from the number of different languages current in the country; and it seems strange that in the Report of the Commissioners so little is said regarding this difficulty, except as to one particular phase of it. The number of languages which have to be dealt with, sometimes in the same district, has always been a hindrance at the commencement of educational work in a large Province. It greatly adds to the labour of providing suitable text books, and in the matter of training teachers and arranging for the inspection of elementary schools, it has been frequently a source of difficulty and delay. It must also to some extent add to the difficulties, otherwise sufficiently great, which stand in the way of the formation of a sound vernacular literature. There is a passing allusion to this matter in the Report of the Commission, in connection with the subject of elementary education in the Punjab, where the value of the instruction imparted in the departmental elementary schools is said to have been impaired by its being given through the medium of Urdu, which is not the vernacular of the rural population, and which, it is stated, has "an unsettling effect upon the cultivating classes, in leading them to look for an official career." In this Province the only question is between Punjabi, the vernacular of the Sikhs, in regard to which many years ago Sir Robert Montgomery, then Judicial Commissioner, reported that its currency as a spoken language was diminishing, and that it was degenerating into a mere provincial dialect, and Urdu, the *lingua franca* of India; but there are districts in other parts of the country where, owing to the number of languages which are current, the difficulty is much more serious. In the Madras Presidency, there are five principal Hindu languages, viz., Telugu, Tamil, Canarese, Malayalam, and Uriya, meeting in some cases in the same districts; while in others, besides the principal language or languages, there are other subsidiary languages or dialects, which have to be taken into account. For instance, in Canara, on the Western Coast, besides Canarese and Malayalam, which latter is spoken in the southern part of the district, there are Tuluwi and Conkani, Reader are practically the languages of extensive sections of Teacher, relation. In Ganjam again, on the borders of Madras Munshi angal, Telugu is the language of the south and Uriya of

the north, while in the western hill tracts the Khond language prevails. In Bellary, Telugu and Canarese, and in Coimbatore, Tamil and Canarese, are current in different parts of the same district. Besides these numerous languages in use among the Hindus, Urdu or Hindustani, as it is called in Southern India, is the language of the Muhammadans throughout the country.

Apart from the difficulty which arises from this Babel of tongues, the language question presents another difficulty, which, is treated at some length in the Report—the question of the place which the vernacular languages should have in those schools and colleges in which English is taught. This question has been mainly discussed in connection with the secondary schools, and chiefly in respect of the lower classes in those schools. It has a bearing, to which reference will be made presently, upon the instruction given in the higher classes in the secondary schools, and also in the colleges; but it is in respect of those classes in the secondary schools, in which the proficiency of the pupils in the English language is necessarily small, that the question has its chief importance. In the elementary schools, as a rule, whether indigenous or departmental, the vernacular language of the district, or of the section of the population which makes use of the school, is the sole medium of instruction. There are some exceptions, but the general rule is as here stated; and as regards schools of this class, the general practice is strictly in accordance with the instructions which have been repeatedly laid down by the highest authorities, although efforts have not been wanting to procure a different decision. The Education dispatch of 1854 contained an emphatic declaration, that it was neither the aim nor desire of the Home Government to substitute the English language for the vernacular dialects of the country, and that any acquaintance with improved European knowledge could only be conveyed to the great mass of the people through one or other of the vernacular languages; but in the course of the discussions which took place after the mutiny of 1857, when the whole question of the educational policy of the Government of India, and indeed almost every question of Indian policy, was reopened, it was urged that English should be adopted as the language of all official business, and that it should take the place of the vernaculars in the courts and other public offices, and as the

language of instruction in the schools. It was argued, not officially, but in quarters scarcely less influential—in public journals which at various times have largely influenced official men and official measures, that the substitution of the English language for the vernacular languages of India was not the impossibility which it had been theretofore regarded ; that the adoption of the former as the language of official business was both practicable and desirable ; and that, with reference to the desire for instruction in English which existed among the natives of India in many parts of the country, the policy of communicating all elementary instruction through the medium of the vernacular languages, was a mistaken one. This question has long been decided against the Anglicists, so far as regards official business and primary education ; but it is still a moot point how far English should be the medium of instruction in the secondary schools, and here there appears to be a considerable diversity of practice. Under the term “secondary schools” are included two classes of schools—middle schools and high schools. In the middle schools in most of the Provinces, while English is taught as a language, the vernacular is employed as the medium of all substantive instruction. In other provinces, on the other hand, the teaching in the higher classes of the middle schools is entirely English. In the Central Provinces instruction is given through the medium of English throughout the classes of the middle schools, and the practice is defended in these terms:

Every effort is made to teach English as a living language. It is felt that a boy well grounded in English, and having a good acquaintance with one of the vernaculars, may, after he leaves school, carry on his own education. Boys well grounded in these languages pass more easily and with greater success through their high-school course than those less perfectly acquainted with English.

A similar system, formerly obtained, and still to a certain extent obtains, in Bengal ; but it is now being changed, on the alleged ground that the pupils who join the high schools with vernacular scholarships, *i.e.*, from schools in which history, geography and science are taught through the medium of the vernacular, evince a marked superiority over those educated under the other system. The Commission, while

they have gone into the question at some length, do not make any definite recommendation, but commend the subject to the consideration of the Local Governments and Departments, and of the managers of schools generally. They mention, however, a fact, which is certainly opposed to the impressions hitherto prevalent, and indeed to the experience in other parts of Bengal, and generally in Madras; viz., that in Calcutta, where the freest choice is open, both to pupils in selecting a school and to managers in determining what constitution will make their school most popular, it is found that all the great middle schools of the city are purely vernacular, and that a large majority of pupils in the Hindu School, a school of long standing, entirely under native management, excluding those who have been educated there from the beginning, come from vernacular, and not from English schools.

The question of language assumes a somewhat different phase in connection with the higher and secondary schools and colleges. In those institutions the almost uniform practice has been to teach English and everything else through the medium of English, making little or no use of the vernacular language of the pupils, except in respect of instruction in the vernacular language itself, or in an Oriental classical language, when that instruction is given by a native teacher unacquainted with English. There can be no doubt that, so far as concerns the acquisition of a good command over the English language, this system is well adapted to the end in view, and it is doubtless owing to this system that many of the natives of India, including such men as Sir Mádava Row, Vembákam Rámiengár, and Kristodás Pál, have acquired such a remarkable command of our language. And if this complete knowledge of the English language were the sole or the main object of high education in India, it would assuredly be a great mistake to alter the present system. But this part of our educational policy has a wider scope. Its avowed aim is to raise up an educated class, imbued with the learning of the West, which shall not only be fitted to take an honourable share in the administration of public affairs, but shall form a link between their English rulers and the mass of the population. The formation of a sound vernacular literature is one of the greatest wants of India. It is still a thing of the future, and it is to be feared that it will so remain unless more use be made of the vernacular languages in our Indian

colleges and high schools, and also in the university examinations. It is impossible to read the examination papers which are printed annually in the calendars of the Indian universities, without being struck by the almost complete exclusion of the vernacular languages from the papers of questions. In these papers, and even in those which specially relate to the native languages, English is treated as if it were the mother-tongue of all the students.

The foregoing remarks have, of course, no reference to the few Oriental Colleges, or to the new University at Lahore, but they apply to the great majority of the colleges and schools throughout India in which education of an advanced kind is given.

While there is so great a diversity of languages, and, so far as regards the middle schools, some diversity of practice in dealing with the language question, there is one class of Indian schools in which similarity, and not diversity, is the rule, and that in Provinces widely separated and differing from each other in almost every other respect. In the indigenous schools, both of the Hindus and Mahomedans, "a general uniformity of character may be traced throughout the Empire." "The educational organization is not different, only less complete and successful in some parts of India than in others." The Commission say :

Where the Government was strong enough to preserve order and maintain the public peace, every large Hindu village possessed a school of its own, and the foundation of a system of national education had, long previous to British rule, been laid by the spontaneous efforts of Hindu and Muhammadan society. Thus in Bengal it is believed that the sustained exertions of the Department of Public Instruction have contributed but little addition to the network of primary schools, which have existed from time immemorial; and there still remains an outer circle of indigenous institutions, not greatly inferior to those which have been already absorbed into the State system of primary instruction. On the other hand, it has been contended that the vast armies of banditti which pillaged the villages of the Deccan and Central India made the social history of that part of the Empire one long narrative of invasion and anarchy, and that the schoolmaster's occupation shared the fate which overtook other peaceful arts and industries. In 1858, according to a census taken by the educational officers under the orders of Government, no less than 90 per cent. of the villages in the

Bombay Presidency were found to be without any indigenous schools whatsoever. Accordingly, the task imposed upon the Department in Bombay was one of creation rather than of adoption, and the poverty of the indigenous system in Western India afforded a marked contrast to its variety and richness in Bengal. Forty years ago, according to an estimate made by the revenue officers, there were only 1,421 indigenous schools in Bombay. There are now 5,338 primary institutions under departmental supervision, and 3,954 indigenous primary unaided schools. Still Hinduism has preserved with considerable uniformity its distinctive features, notwithstanding the vicissitudes that Hindus have encountered in the various Provinces in India. In short, a Bengal *pathshala* is only another type of similar institutions in Madras or Bombay. The Muhammadans have also preserved their *madrasas* intact; and although they are distributed in very small communities outside the three Provinces of Bengal, the Punjab, and the North-Western Provinces, a mosque-school, or *maktab*, in Sind differs little from one in Behar.

The Commission give an interesting account of the distinctive features of the indigenous systems of education. They define an indigenous school as "an educational institution established by natives of India on native methods." Such institutions are either of an advanced character or purely elementary. Those of the higher grade have remained for the most part outside the Government educational system. Some religious character attaches to all indigenous schools of the old type that teach the classical languages of the East, as well as to a large number of the ordinary vernacular village schools. "The religious element is, however, more marked in the high class school, whether it be the Hindu *taluk* or the Muhammadan Madrasa, than in the elementary vernacular school. It is again more marked in the Muhammadan elementary *maktab*, or the Sikh Gurmukhi School, than in the *pathshala*, or elementary school, of the Hindu village community." "The distinctive principle of Hindu social life—caste—has stamped its impress on all Hindu educational institutions. The higher schools are practically closed against all but Brahmans, and the Brahman scholars are treated as the children of their master." "The theocratic principle, which lies at the root of Asiatic civilization, necessarily moulded the character of the high schools in which the upper classes of Hindu and Muhammadan society educated their children.

Amongst the Hindus higher education was regarded in theory as the right and duty of the twin-born castes. In practice the pupils, as well as the teachers, belong almost exclusively to the Brahman caste. The relation between teacher and pupil is much more paternal in the Hindu than in the Muhammadan college. The Hindu law enjoined it as a religious duty on the Brahman that he should teach, and in order that his undivided attention might be devoted to education the obligation of providing for his temporal wants was imposed both on the Sovereign and on the community." The Bengal tols are often liberally endowed, and on the occasion of Hindu festivals presents are given to the masters and pupils. The teacher is accordingly bound to make a free gift of his learning, and is even enjoined 'give free board and lodging to his pupils. The relation between master and pupil becomes almost paternal. This is not the case in the Muhammadan Madrasa, where the personal attachment between teacher and pupil is not so marked.

Except to a limited extent in Bengal and the Punjab, these higher indigenous schools have not been brought under the Government Educational Department. The almost exclusively religious character of the instruction imparted in them has been hitherto regarded as a bar. The Commission, however, recommend that "all indigenous schools, whether high or low, should be recognised and encouraged, if they serve any purpose of secular education whatsoever;" and that "the best practicable method of encouraging indigenous schools of a high order, which desire recognition, be ascertained by the local Education Department, in communication with the Maulavis and Pandits, and others interested in the subject."

The description which is given in the Report of the elementary indigenous schools in their normal condition is very similar to those which have been furnished in previous Reports; but on the whole, perhaps, less unfavourable. It is stated that the children "obtain such an instruction in elementary subjects of practical utility as is designed to qualify them either for the service of their religion or for their future civil position. In particular the study of mental arithmetic is carried to a high pitch of excellence." There is very little mention of the parrot-like character of the teaching with which the system has hitherto been credited; but from the various recommendations which are made for bringing the schools

under inspection, with a view to their improvement, it is not unreasonable to infer that their condition is considered by the Commission to be less satisfactory than might be gathered from the wording of this part of the Report. "The gradual improvement of the teaching power in the indigenous system" is, in their opinion, "a matter of such primary importance, that they recommend that special rules be made to meet the case." Among other recommendations, it is suggested that "special encouragement be afforded to indigenous schoolmasters to undergo training, and to bring their relatives and probable successors under regular training."

In some parts of India, and notably in Madras, the elementary schools, both departmental and indigenous, have been placed under the Local and Municipal Boards, which are now intrusted with the collection and expenditure of Local Taxation. While this arrangement has much to recommend it, there is, of course, a danger of the provision made for education being insufficient, or of its being injudiciously applied. This subject has been very carefully considered in the Report of the Commission, which, in the chapter on primary education, in that dealing with the external relations of the Department, and in the chapter on legislation, contains various recommendations upon it. The main object of these recommendations is (a) to secure adequate provision for the primary education of the children of the poor; (b) to give a voice to the Department of Public Instruction in the administration of this branch of educational expenditure.

The question of the proportion of the educational funds of all descriptions which ought to be devoted to primary education, was one upon which considerable difference of opinion prevailed among the Members of the Commission. It was proposed by one party that the Commission should assert the principle "that the elementary education of the masses be declared to be that part of the State system of education to which public funds should be mainly devoted." This was objected to on various grounds,—among others on the ground "that the authorities had never intended to limit expenditure to that class of instruction now defined as primary." The recommendations which were finally carried were to the following effect:—1st, that whilst every branch of education can rightly claim the fostering care of the State, it is desirable, in the present circumstances of the country, to declare the

elementary education of the masses, its provision, extension and improvement, to be that part of the educational system to which the strenuous efforts of the State should now be directed in a still larger measure than heretofore; and 2nd, "that primary education be declared to be that part of the whole system of public instruction which possesses an almost exclusive claim on local funds set apart for education, and a large claim on provincial revenues."

The chapters in the Report on the Internal Administration of the Department of Public Instruction (VII.), and on the External Relations of the Department to Individuals and Public Bodies (VIII.), deal with several questions of great importance. Under the first head falls the question of the suitability of the present directing and inspecting agencies, with reference to which various changes, some of an extreme character, were suggested to the Commission. Dr. Leitner, himself an officer of the Department, went so far as to recommend the abolition of the Directorships and Inspectorships, and that the supervision of high education should be left to the Universities, and the more direct control and supervision of primary and secondary education to Local Educational Boards. Another proposal was, that a Consulting Board of Education should be associated with the Director of Public Instruction in each Province. The first of these suggestions found no support among the Members of the Commission. The second, after full discussion, was rejected for reasons which, one would think, could hardly fail to commend themselves to the judgment of most persons who have any practical experience in administrative business; but which, it appears, prevailed only by the vote of a narrow majority. The objections to such an arrangement are well stated in the Report:—

To interpose a Consultative Board between the Government and its responsible officer would be to destroy responsibility, and to replace expedition by delay. A Board such as that proposed must contain representatives of many conflicting interests; its members must include men of various creeds; advocates of the higher and advocates of the lower education; representatives of departmental agency, and representatives of private effort; delegates from the Districts, as well as residents in the Presidency Towns. A Board so composed would be perpetually engaged in the discussion of first principles, and if action were to wait on their settlement by the Board, prompt action would be impos-

sible. It is essential to efficient administration that the responsibility of the head of the Department to the Government should be absolute; but with the introduction of a Board between the Director and the Government, the responsibility of the former would practically disappear.

The Report goes on to say :—

The true remedy for the evils pointed out is for the Department to regard it as its first duty to keep touch with public opinion; to maintain a vigilant, and at the same time a sympathetic, watch upon the various movements taking place outside the departmental system; to recognise the fact that "departmentalism" is, or may easily become, an evil; and to seek to imbue all its officers with the liberal spirit conformable to these principles. When there are conflicting interests, it is for the Department to steer a clear course among them; recognising what is good in each, and treating all on broad grounds of justice and liberality. If it fails in that great duty, the Government is at hand to correct its deficiencies. The Government is already brought into effective contact with public opinion, on all great questions of educational policy; and it may be fairly anticipated that one result of the Commission's labours will be to infuse into the policy of the future still greater liberality and vigour.

This question of the machinery for control brings me to the Rev. J. Johnston's paper, in which regret is expressed at the omission of the Commission "to lay before Government some practical suggestions as to the best way of superintending education over the country."

Mr. Johnston writes :—

At present, there is no systematic supervision by the Central Government in India, or by the Council at home. Elaborate reports are sent in to the different Provincial Governments, by whom they are supposed to be examined, and a Minute made and appended to the report before it is sent home to the India Office, where all reports from all the Provinces are duly received and treasured up. The character of the examination by the Provincial Government depends entirely on the personal character of the Governor or his Secretary. In many cases the Minute appended is a mere echo of the report, and for all practical purposes might be written by the same hand that penned it. Generally they are laudatory, or if a hint of censure is thrown out, it is done in a hesitating tone, as if by

one who is not sure of his ground in dealing with the work of a specialist of which he has but imperfect knowledge. In a few cases you come upon a firm note of censure, and an authoritative command to alter a certain line of policy, and you look to the report of the following year to see if it be attended to. But such hope is vain. If the Governor or his Secretary is still at the same post, you will find the same complaint repeated for a year or two, and then the high Government official is changed, and the permanent Education Officer remains the master of the field under a new man, and most likely a new policy; or, if not, he is prepared to repeat his Fabian tactics during another five years' administration of his nominal masters.

As for the Home Government, there is no department and no man whose duty it is to superintend the education of India. This great enterprise is thrown in as a small part of the work of a Committee, which has much urgent business to attend to of a different kind, and which cannot be expected to know what is contained in these ten or twelve dreary volumes, with their elaborate tables.

If matters are left in this unsatisfactory state, we cannot expect any consistent policy to be carried out, and all the evils which have been exposed, and for which remedies are now in a large measure provided, will return, and that, in all likelihood, in a worse form than ever. There are men both in the Government of India and at home who are able and willing to do their best; but it is no man's appointed task, and they have other work to attend to. Can we wonder that in these circumstances the education of the people is neglected?

We cannot here recommend a definite remedy; but we indicate its nature, and call attention to the absolute need of a remedy of some kind.

There is some force in these observations, which, however, might with more or less truth be applied to all departments of the public service, whether in India or in England, and probably in other countries as well, where the work of persons employed on a special branch of duty, requiring special or professional knowledge, has to be reviewed by persons not possessing that knowledge, as must so often be the case. There is also in India the additional difficulty of frequent changes in the personnel of the administration. Every Indian Governor or Lieutenant-Governor is changed at least once in five years, and that period is probably quite as long as the higher subordinate officials on the average retain their offices, especially in these days of steam communication and of liberal, some per-

sons think unduly liberal, furlough rules. It has sometimes been suggested that in the Department of Education, as in the Postal and Telegraph Departments, there should be a Director-General attached to the Government of India, who should supervise the work of the provincial directing officers, and bring to the notice of the Government of India any departures from the established policy of the Government, or any errors or defects of a different kind. The Commission have abstained, wisely, as I venture to think, from making any such recommendation, holding doubtless that education is a branch of public business in which over-centralization would be most mischievous. It might, perhaps, be an advantage that, either in the Home Department of the Government of India or at the India Office, there should be an under secretary specially charged with the education business. The India Office probably would be the best place for him, as there the office would less often change hands; and continuity of policy being the chief object in view, the longer the appointment is held by the same man, provided always that he is a fit man, the better. The Home Government of India is not addicted to over-centralizing. Its fault more often lies in the other direction—in not sufficiently enforcing obedience on the part of the Local Governments, and especially the Governments of the two Minor Presidencies, to the orders of the Supreme Government. There would, therefore, be very little danger of over-centralization if the staff at the India Office were reinforced in the mode above suggested.

Another remark which occurs more than once in Mr. Johnston's Analysis of the Report, has far less justification than the criticisms embodied in the preceding observations. He styles those members of the Commission who have at any time been employed in connexion with the State Education Department as the Bureaucratic party, and, indeed, he goes so far as to apply that term to the native members who had received their education at Government colleges, and whom he describes as "more bureaucratic than the members of the bureau." The recommendation carried by the majority of the Commission on the question of the proportion of educational funds, which ought to be devoted to primary education, is ascribed to the sensitiveness of the Bureaucratic party in the Commission as to anything that might seem to "reflect on the past management of the Education Department." On the

other hand, one of the official members, whose views are strongly in accord with those of Mr. Johnston, is described as knowing "more about education and its history than any man in India." In fact those members of the Commission who held opinions differing in any respect from those entertained by Mr. Johnston and Mr. Miller, are Bureaucrats, whatever their previous training may have been. The others come under a very different category. The use of language of this kind is a blot and defect in an otherwise very useful publication.

It is interesting to know who were the writers of the several chapters of the Report, information not usually supplied with reference to public documents of this kind, but which Mr. Johnston has been able to furnish. We learn that the important chapter on the External Relations of the Department was written by the Rev. W. Miller, the very able head of the Christian College at Madras, who is known to have been largely instrumental, in conjunction with Mr. Johnston, in procuring the appointment of the Commission. There is a good deal in this chapter which entitles it to the praise bestowed upon it in Mr. Johnston's Analysis. The questions with which it deals, are discussed with great fulness, and for the most part with fairness and moderation. There is one point, however, upon which the preconceived opinions of the writer would seem to have imparted a tinge to this portion of the Report, which savours of partizanship, not so much perhaps in what is said, as in what is left unsaid. I refer to the alleged want of sympathy on the part of the departmental officers with private effort. Various observations made by witnesses before the Commission, some of them couched in very strong language, are cited for the purpose of showing that the Department is unsympathetic towards private effort, and that in some Provinces the policy of substituting departmental education for aided education, in deliberate opposition to the orders of the Home Government, has been steadily pursued. A statement made by a witness from the North-Western Provinces is quoted, to the effect that "Aided Schools are looked upon by the educational authorities as excrescences which are to be removed, and the sooner, the better. They are the pariahs of the Education Department, and are looked upon with contempt." And regarding the Presidencies of Madras and Bombay, various facts and allegations are referred to as

indicating, in the opinion of the Commission, that the grant in aid system has been administered in a spirit the reverse of liberal, and that a "strong preference has been shown by the Department for working through its own rather than by means of private agency." Now the writer of this chapter of the Report had had considerable experience of the working of the Education Department in one of the two Presidencies above referred to, and had ample means of knowing that, whatever may have been the case during the last few years, the policy, of aiding and encouraging private effort by every possible means, so far as circumstances admitted, was, during a lengthened period, the guiding principle of the Department. I have before me, as I write, three papers, written at long intervals of time by an official who was connected in one capacity or another with the Education Department in India, and especially in the Presidency in question, during a period extending over a quarter of a century. In the first of these papers,—a report on Public Instruction written in 1859, the following passage occurs:—

There is much to be said in favour of the grant in aid system, and if it were possible to rely on this system for the extension of education throughout the country, it would have been, on every account, desirable that the Government should have confined itself to it entirely, and abandoned the establishment of schools of its own. Its great advantages are: 1st, the economy with which it may be worked, as compared with the direct system of maintaining Government Schools; 2nd, the avoidance of all difficulties in connexion with religious instruction; and, 3rd, the avoidance of interference with the educational operations of Christian Missionaries, which it would be neither right nor politic to ignore, and which would be seriously impeded by the general establishment of Government schools in the localities in which those operations are carried on. It seems especially adapted to a country like India, where instruction has to be provided for a teeming population, scattered over extensive tracts; where the funds at the disposal of Government for educational purposes are but scanty, and where the religion of the Government differs from those professed by the majority of its subjects. For these reasons it seems desirable that in all our educational operations the eventual resort to the grant in aid system as the main course of action, should be steadily kept in view, encouraging and taking advantage of every opening for its introduction.

The second paper is a memorandum written by the same

official, under date 24th September, 1864, and laying before the Local Government the results of a conference, which he had convened for the purpose of discussing certain points in the grant in aid rules, and removing difficulties which were held to impede their working. This conference was attended by representatives of all the leading educational societies in the Presidency, as well as by the Director of Public Instruction and other members of the Education Department; and papers were read, among others one by Mr. Miller, copies of which were submitted to the Government. All the papers relating to the conference were published as a Selection from the Records of the Government; and if they prove nothing else, they prove most conclusively that at that time, at all events, there was a cordial desire on the part of the Government and the Department to co-operate with "independent persons and associations" engaged in education, and to give the grant in aid system the greatest possible scope.

The third paper is a Note written by the same official eleven years later, objecting to the withdrawal of a grant from an Aided College at work in a district in which a State College existed. This Note, after contesting the reasons assigned for the withdrawal of the grant in the particular case in question, showing that there was ample room for both colleges, and referring to the intention declared in the Dispatch of 1854 eventually, to confine the operations of the Government to the grant in aid system, at all events, in respect of the higher education, goes on to say:

It is often alleged that more practical measures should have been taken with the view of giving effect to this intention; but, on the other hand, it has been argued, and I think with justice, that in the case of the collegiate schools and colleges, the withdrawal of any very large proportion of the support which they now receive from the State, and their conversion into aided institutions, would be followed by a diminution of their efficiency, which would be alike impolitic and unpopular. It would, in fact, be tantamount to abandoning these institutions to probable decay, a result which the Court of Directors, in their Dispatch of 1854, avowed to be "very far from their wish." The whole question is encompassed by serious practical difficulties. In principle, it would be in every way better that the State should confine itself strictly to the grant in aid system; that the State schools and colleges should be made over to managing bodies selected from the native communities which are mainly

interested in them, and the functions of the State in relation to them confined to inspection and grants in aid. And this, it appears to me, might be done gradually, and perhaps rapidly, in the case of Zillah schools, and other institutions of this class, which are mainly conducted by native masters; but in the case of the colleges, for which English teachers are required, there is the great practical difficulty, that if such a transfer were made, the managers would find it impossible to obtain the services of competent teachers. This is a difficulty which is not experienced by missionary societies, or by other bodies of managers mainly composed of Europeans; but it would, I fear, be an insuperable difficulty with native managers, at all events, for many years to come. For this reason I cannot anticipate the possibility of carrying out, within any moderate time, the discontinuance of the Government colleges as State institutions. All that can be done, as it appears to me, is gradually to raise the fees, and render these institutions less dependent upon the public treasury; and this, I think, should be enjoined on the Government of — as regards the Government college at —, where, it would seem, the fees of late years have been lowered instead of being raised.

But while the practical difficulty to which I have alluded renders it, in my opinion, impossible to give full effect in this matter to the intentions of the framers of the Dispatch of 1854, I cannot think that the Government of India ought to sanction so wide a departure from the principles and policy of that dispatch as is involved in the withdrawal of the grant made to the college department of the — college. It is one thing to affirm that under existing circumstances the Government college cannot be discontinued. It is quite another thing to declare that because the Government college must be maintained, the rival institution is to confine its aim to a lower standard of education. Such a declaration appears to me to be both impolitic and unjust; impolitic, because it alienates from the Government a valuable educational agency; unjust, because it disappoints the expectations held out in the Dispatch of 1854, and repeatedly affirmed in subsequent State papers.

I am convinced that the views expressed in the foregoing extracts have been, and are, shared by many of the officers of the Indian Educational Departments, past and present; and I think, therefore, that the wording of this part of the Report of the Commission is open to exception, dwelling, as it does, upon facts and allegations which tend to support the theory of departmental lukewarmness, if not antagonism, towards

extraneous effort, and ignoring facts which point in an opposite direction. That there has been in some quarters a lack of zeal in assisting and encouraging the schools of missionary and other public bodies unconnected with the State, and a preference for schools supported by the Department, is not denied. This, indeed, is proved, so far as a single instance can prove it, by the case referred to in the Note above quoted; but I am persuaded that such cases have been the exception, and not the rule.

I now pass on to Mr. Pincott's paper. What may be Mr. Pincott's qualifications for forming an opinion on the many difficult questions which were submitted to the Indian Education Commission, I am not aware. I understand that he has never been in India, and has, therefore, had no opportunity of acquiring a practical knowledge of Indian facts and of Indian requirements; nor does it seem that he has any experience in administrative work. I understand, however, that he is an Oriental scholar of some note. His criticisms upon the Report of the Commission are very sweeping, and attack, not only the recommendations, but the constitution of the Commission. According to Mr. Pincott, the Commission ought not to have included any officers of the Education Department, past or present. It ought not to have included any Government officials. It ought not to have included any "known supporters of things as they are," and at the same time complete ignorance of the subject is objected to. It is difficult to understand what description of Commission would have suited Mr. Pincott's views, unless it were one which was pledged to recommend the abolition of the Departmental Staff of Directors and Inspectors, and a recurrence, in the matter of primary education, to the state of things which existed before the Department was constituted, in 1855.

One particular observation in the Report, to the effect that "the proposal to abolish the Provincial Directorships found no support in the Commission, and was not even suggested as a matter for discussion," is referred to in terms of special condemnation.

If, Mr. Pincott writes, this is not tantamount to the play of *Hamlet* with the part of Hamlet left out, I do not know what it is. It is the Education Department, with its army of Inspectors, presided over, in each Province by a Director,

which now regulates and supervises all things connected with education, except the University courses. The Commission was at liberty to make any recommendation it pleased, and it found a concurrence of testimony as to the expensiveness and defectiveness of the Departmental system; and it received suggestions for the limitation or abolition of the Department's influence; but instead of sitting in judgment on the evidence, a rule was laid down that the chief offender was to be beyond interference.

This is not an unfair specimen of Mr. Pincott's mode of argument. Because a few, a very few, of the witnesses examined by the Commission recommended extensive changes in the constitution of the Department, one or two of them going so far as to advise the total abolition of the Directing and Inspecting Staff; and because this last-mentioned recommendation so far failed to commend itself to the judgment of any of the members of the Commission, that not one of them was prepared to support it; therefore, the Commission is charged with having neglected an important portion of its duty. There is nothing to show that this particular recommendation was not fully considered by the Commission. On the contrary, the terms in which it was put forward by its several advocates, are clearly stated in the Report; but because every member of the Commission disapproved it, and therefore declined to take up his own time or that of his colleagues by suggesting it for discussion, therefore the whole Commission is charged with having failed to sit in judgment on the evidence, and with having laid down a rule that "the chief offender was to be beyond interference."

Want of logic in the reasoning is only equalled by the inconsistencies of statement with which the paper abounds. In the second page high praise is given to the officers of the Education Department.

Mr. Pincott says:—"If we survey the labours of the Department, we shall be astonished at the vast educational machinery it has called into existence, the energy with which it has worked, the number of children it instructs, and *the quality of the education it gives*. There can be no question that the mass of the officers of the Education Department are thoroughly able and earnest men, who administer the education policy of the Indian Government with praiseworthy diligence."

Further on it is alleged that "the very existence of the

Commission itself was due to the accumulating evidence of the grave unfitness of the Education Department for the work with which it is already entrusted."

In one place it is asserted that the system is expensive and denationalizing, and that the anglicised instruction given has caused grave disaffection. Immediately afterwards it is stated that one of the remedies for this state of things is to deepen and improve the high education which has brought it about. It is added that "no one has ever dreamt of reducing or throwing any obstacle in the way of high education;" but if we refer to an article from the same pen in the *National Review*, we find a denunciation of the system of imparting a high education to the natives of India through the medium of the English language and of English literature and science, not less sweeping than that which has been levelled in both papers against the staff of the Education Department. In both these papers the language employed on this subject is extremely wanting in precision, but if it has any meaning at all, it means that the proper course would be to revert to the Oriental system of instruction which preceded Lord William Bentinck's Resolution of 1835.

In another passage it is said that the present urgent need of India is, to raise "the mass of the people a little nearer to the level of the institutions by which they are governed;" and the Madras system of primary instruction, "based on a recognition of the indigenous methods of instruction," is referred to with approval, accompanied, however, by the expression of a hope that the Madras system will be brought still further into harmony with indigenous methods. Hitherto the aim of those who have advocated the plan of utilizing the indigenous schools has been, to improve them by introducing into them better methods of instruction, by encouraging the teachers in those schools to undergo training, and in other ways, and this is the plan which has been advocated by the Commission; but it does not find favour with Mr. Pincott, who at the same time fails to explain how the unimproved indigenous schools are to raise "the mass of the people a little nearer to the level of the institutions by which they are governed."

There are many other passages in these two papers which invite comment, but I think enough has been said to show that very little value can be attached to the criticisms which they

embody. The Indian Education Department, like other bodies of public functionaries, in India as elsewhere, is not free from the liability to error. It is by no means improbable that, here and there, an individual officer of the Department has shown himself to be ill-qualified for his duties, or neglectful of the instructions prescribed for his guidance. But, viewing the department as a whole, it cannot be said that its members, either past or present, have fallen short of the standard which might reasonably have been looked for. Much good work has been done. Instances of single-minded devotion to duty, combined with ability of a high order, have not been rare. On the rolls of the Department there are names which will be held in honour, and will be remembered with sentiments of gratitude by the natives of India, long after some who have filled far higher and more prominent positions have been practically forgotten. To abolish the Department, or to materially alter its constitution, would be a grave mistake, and would seriously retard, if it did not altogether paralyse, the good work now in progress. It is essential to an efficient system of National Education that there should be an agency both for direction and inspection, and that that agency should be composed of men who, besides possessing special qualifications, are able to give their whole time and attention to their duties. This is especially necessary in the case of elementary and secondary schools. To delegate these duties to the Local Boards, unassisted by professional officers, competent to inspect and advise, would be a cardinal error, which in the course of a few years would have to be corrected, after a deplorable waste of time and money. The recommendations of the Commission on this point are wise and practical, and will command the assent of most persons who approach the subject with unprejudiced minds.

There are still several very important questions, dealt with by the Commission, which I have been unable to notice in this or in my previous paper. I may perhaps have an opportunity of reverting to this interesting Report in some future number of the *Journal*.

ALEX. J. ARBUTHNOT.

HISTORICAL SUGGESTIONS IN THE ANCIENT HINDU EPIC, THE *MAHÁBHĀRATA*.

(Continued from page 299.)

Krishna, the great Hindu incarnation of the divine upon earth, appears throughout the poem. This word is said to mean "the dark one," though its derivation appears to be unknown; and he is usually represented as of a dark-blue colour, apparently indicative of the deep azure of infinite space. But he is addressed by many names, especially as Hari, which appears to mean "the shining one," or by the name of his father, Vasudeva, which signifies "he who abides in all creatures." He is said to be styled Naráyana, from his march upon the waters; Vishnu, as the all-pervading. He is adorned as the white lotus, the supreme habitation, the immortal and imperishable god with the blue lotus eyes. He assists at the birth of every being, good or evil. He names each creature; for he possesses the science of everything. He reposes in truth, and truth in him. He is styled Govinda (the Pastor) and the Eternal Duty.

When the marriage of his friends the Pandu princes, Yudishthira, or "firm in battle," and his brothers, takes place, an arch-brahmin presides in the sacramental ceremony at the sacred fire, and offers prayers. The wedding procession is described as gorgeous, with robes, bouquets, ornamented cars, golden garlands, &c. The antiquity of the custom of bestowing presents upon the bride and bridegroom is illustrated by the enumeration of the gifts sent upon this occasion by the divine Prince Krishna. These consisted of golden ornaments, embellished with precious stones, costly vestments, tissues of various countries, coverlets of furs, and glittering gems. He also sent couches and chairs of various kinds, hundreds of vases incrustated with diamonds and lapis-lazuli, accompanied by servants born in many countries, endowed with youth, beauty, and good manners, and splendidly attired. He also presented them with well-trained elephants of great size, with horses excellent, well-trained, and richly adorned, and with cars handsomely embellished and resplendent with golden studs. Finally, he sent a quantity of unstamped gold and millions of golden pieces of money. On another occasion, amongst the presents bestowed by Krishna, are enumerated cars drawn by four horses with garlands of bells, and with coachmen who have been instructed by able masters; also 1,000 radiant damsels, with 100,000 horses from the district of Balkh.

On one occasion Krishna describes the manner of besieging a fortified town. He mentions its arched gateways, arsenals, wide streets, and engines of war; moats surround it, and it is also defended by palisades. The attacking army encamps everywhere around it, except in the cemeteries and temples of the deities. He observes that the true warrior will never abandon the field of battle. He will not strike one who has already been smitten to the ground, nor one who renders himself prisoner, nor an old man, nor a warrior who flies with his weapons broken. Flights of arrows are described as concealing everything in their density, like clouds. Cuirasses, helmets, and many weapons are enumerated. Amongst various species of lances, swords, &c., appears a word (*bhouçoundis*) which M. Eugene Burnouf and other commentators have held to mean firearms.

The tumult of a vast encampment is powerfully described. Market-places are established in the camp; doctors and surgeons are mentioned, duly provided with instruments and learned in the treatises of medicine. Cars, armoured elephants, cavalry and infantry are numbered by tens of thousands. The district selected for the camp is well watered, shaded by woods, with abundance of turf. The king surrounds it with cemeteries, temples, altars, &c., and then constructs a palace for himself. Mountains of weapons are provided—bows and arrows, coats of mail, maces, battle-axes, iron arrows, sabres, standards, &c. The warriors have vestments ornamented with gold, and even golden cuirasses and coats of mail. If they had not in those days quite arrived at the deadly neatness of the breech-loading rifle, if they had not quite reached the ingenuity of Christian culture in designing engines of destruction, they had, at all events, manifested considerable skill. Besides the varieties of spears, axes, and swords, they had arrows shot through tubes as well as from ordinary bows; they had shells filled with boiling water, and they threw from their chariots burning balls. The proportion of the troops is stated to have been one car to ten elephants, ten horsemen to each elephant, seven foot soldiers to each horseman. That the general equipment of the whole was brilliant may be inferred from the infantry being described as wearing golden garlands.

In the successive days of the great fight the army is related to have been drawn up in different orders of battle—in the form of a half-moon, a cross, a lotus, an eagle with its wings outstretched, and other fanciful forms. The uproar of the battle is heightened by the sound of the drums and conch shells. Flaming darts are thrown. The cavalry are armed with swords and barded javelins. Allowing for the exaggeration of the

poet, his description of the archery can only have been suggested by a degree of skill not surpassed by our own bowmen of the Cressy and Poitiers period. Heroes even send showers of arrows from their chariots with their single bows, such is the rapidity of their fire. Their aim is so exquisite that they are described as cutting in sunder lances hurled at them, or other arrows in their flight. Arrows with a crescent head are used for slicing purposes. After the *melee*, in confusion upon the field of battle are emblazoned banners, the embroidered caparisons of horses, and rich coverlets of various colours, javelins, maces, tridents, hooks to seize the golden ornaments of the enemy, arrows feathered with gold, golden cuirasses, tiaras and helmets, swords inlaid with gold with ivory hilts, amidst bodies, decapitated heads with their earrings, aigrettes, &c., bâtons of command made of lapis-lazuli or other precious stones, turbans of divers hues with golden half-moon crests, &c., &c. Surgeons are mentioned as coming with their instruments to extract the arrows from the wounded. The chieftains are said to ascend their chariots before the battle, burning as ardently with the desire of battle as merchants with the desire of gain when they embark upon the great ships. When victory has been obtained, the heroes are said to be celebrated in the songs chanted by the bards, minstrels, and poets. Bards are mentioned as especially learned in the ancient histories. The Hindus have been blamed for possessing no regular histories of their country; but this allusion seems to suggest that histories may have been lost. At the banquets of the warriors are mentioned comfitures, pâtés, various kinds of cakes, rice boiled with sweetmeats, &c., condiments flavoured with rum, in addition to meats "artistically prepared," with carefully-seasoned gravies and various kinds of intoxicating liquors; and the Brahmins also seem to have partaken of these to great extent. Their revels were accompanied by songs, as at our great dinners of city companies, &c. To become inebriated after a gay banquet seems to have been regarded with no more abhorrence than in England during the Georgian era, when the clergy as well as the gentry indulged freely in the pleasures of the table. This great epic is stated in the poem itself to have been first recited in royal presence, then to have been narrated before holy sages; but its contents suggest that, in its present form, it was written in an age which may be considered literary. There are frequent allusions in it to treatises on the various branches of the political and social arts.

Attention is continually turned towards Krishna throughout the poem. In him are said to be victory and eternal glory. He says, in reply to praises of himself, "Cease not to work for the

preservation of the entire world." His birth and early life are related in the last book of the *Mahābhārata*, or in what has been held to be an addendum to it, the book called the *Harivansa*. In this will be found a strange resemblance to events in the life of Christ. A tyrant endeavours to slay Krishna at his birth, heavenly choirs rejoice, &c. Throughout the *Mahābhārata* he appears as one known to the readers or hearers. He is not introduced as a novelty. He endeavours to mediate between the contending princes, and his journey as ambassador is thus described.

Before setting out he bathes and performs the due matutinal ceremony, adoring the sun and fire (*i.e.* the Agni, or holy fire of the altar), to which a large proportion of the hymns of the *Vedas* are addressed in adoration, and inclining before the Brahmins. His car is armed for the journey. It is adorned with moons and crescent-moons and brilliant standards, and it is styled a charming object of art. Birds and beasts of good augury are said to follow his march. His friends, the five virtuous princes, accompany him to some distance from their capital, and when they bid him adieu, "Firm in battle," the eldest, addresses him as "Lord of all beings, eternal God of gods, whom the man exempt from passion ought to obey." Saints assemble from all parts to greet Krishna, whom they style "this god become a warrior prince." "Courtesans and kings," they say, "contemplate thee, who art the verity." As Krishna advances thunder is heard, and rain falls in a cloudless sky. The seven great rivers of Scinde turn their courses from east to west. Darkness prevails over all the world except upon his own route. The women assembled upon his line of march overwhelm with flowers of the sweetest fragrance "this grand being," as he is styled, "whose happiness is found in the welfare of all creatures." In traversing the various towns and kingdoms the inhabitants all come forth to meet him. When he alights he gives orders to groom the horses in due accordance with the treatises on their treatment. Brahmins invite him to repose in their houses, described as adorned with precious stones. Everywhere he constitutes the topic of conversation, and it is agreed that pleasure will result to those who treat him with due honour, and pain to those who do not receive him. The roads are watered. The gates of the towns are decorated to receive him, while the inhabitants throng to behold him, in cars or on foot. Crowds of chapering women are upon every palace. The hymns of poets, bards, and minstrels, the sweet chants of women, and concerts of tambourines and drums, flutes and conch shells, accompany him.

Surely all this must demonstrate that, if there was not in

India the exquisite grace of Greek art in the Pericles period, there was at all events a high civilization with very elaborate art, which must have been due to the gradual growth of many ages. The internal evidence certainly seems to point to an author writing at a period between the 10th and 5th centuries B.C., perhaps Vaisampayana, who is named in the work as reciting it. He would appear to have ascribed the work to the holy Sage Vyāsa, the contemporary of Krishna, and placed by the Hindus at about 3000 B.C. The dark age of the world is held to have commenced when the divine Krishna quitted his mortal body, and again became only Vishnu, the all-pervading one, or Narāyana, he who moves upon the waters.

The following aphorisms surely suggest a highly cultivated and religious age:—

‘Politeness is especially displayed by the happy. Holy Scripture is the grandest of riches. Contentment the greatest of pleasure. Humanity the highest duty. Renown is the aim of the dancer and comedian; good living that of the servant. Fear is the lot of the king. Cupidity keeps us from heaven. Patience supports disputes. Science is the explanation of the true nature of things. Pity is the desire of good towards all beings. Anger is an enemy difficult to conquer. Avarice is a malady without end. Truth is the ladder for mounting to heaven; as necessary as is a vessel for traversing the sea. Neither birth, prayer, nor the knowledge of Holy Scripture, but only good conduct, can bestow the real quality of a Brahmin. Patience is the virtue of the feeble and the ornament of the strong. These two men are over Paradise: a Master endowed with patience, a poor man who can find the means to give. These two have a part in the disc of the sun: a religious mendicant absorbed in meditation, and a warrior wounded to death, with his face towards his enemy. These three doors open to hell: desire, anger, and avarice. Let not a king take advice from the idle, the unscientific, or from dancers.’ Here is a passage which seems to indicate that the poem was indited before the practice of *sati* became prevalent (*i.e.* the immolation of a widow in the flames of the funereal pyre of her husband). As we have the testimony of Megasthenes, the Greek ambassador, who has left some fragmentary descriptions of India in about the 3rd century B.C., to its recognised existence at that epoch, a powerful argument is added to the reasoning in favour of the antiquity of the poem. It is said: ‘Let these remain in thy house, with the surroundings of prosperity: an old father, an unfortunate Brahmin, a poor friend, and a sister with her children.’ Here is a suggestion of sea voyaging being within the general cognisance of the readers or audience of the poem: ‘A vessel is said to be

hated by those who have traversed the worst parts of the sea.' Here is a passage which indicates general acquaintance with reading, and which shows that the *Vedas*, or books of knowledge, the most ancient and holiest of the Hindu Scriptures, were not then confined to the class of Brahmins: 'The warrior who has read the *Vedas*, if he is slain in battle, is exalted to Paradise; and so also the merchant who has read and distributed his wealth, and so the man of inferior class.'

A description is given of an assemblage of princes. This is held in a court, vast, and of glistening marble, adorned with gold, and suggesting the splendour of the moon. It was sprinkled with the most precious sandal. It was furnished with chairs dazzling in decorations, constructed of wood, iron, ivory, and gold, on which were thrown coverlets elegantly designed. The princes are costumed in rich and elaborately adorned robes. They are powdered with sandal, and they have great bouquets of flowers. The forms of ceremonial address are minutely described, corresponding to the modern salaam of the Hindu (*i.e.* to the lowly bending of the body, and the joining of the hands in attitude of supplication). They are described as drinking, even to inebriety, of spirituous liquors. In fact, these Aryans of ancient India continually suggest an ancestry of the Greek and northern races of Europe, or in fact of ourselves, rather than of the modern Hindus. Amongst the Rajpoots and Sikhs, however, we find those whom we may consider as their genuine descendants.

Fêtes are described, on the occasion of a great religious ceremony performed by Krishna. The narrative suggests that amateur theatricals were in vogue. Firstly, an account is given of an apparently professional actor, who charms them by his admirable exhibition of light comedy acting and his power of universal mimicry. Then the principal members of Krishna's tribal family disguise themselves in the garb of comedians. One is described as becoming what we should call the "leading man" of the company. Another is the "low comedian," and the rest take various parts. With them are conjoined ladies distinguished by their graces and talents, and an orchestra is added. Concealed under the guise of the characters which they were to enact, they arrive in a popular quarter of the city; five houses are assigned to them for residence, and hospitalities and presents conferred upon them.

At the representation they first perform a drama upon the subject of the other great Indian epic poem, the *Ramáyana*, the actors being in suitable costumes. After the customary prologue it is related that many interesting scenes ensue, which evoke enthusiastic applause. Precious stuffs and gems are bestowed

upon the performers. After the principal piece, recitations, &c., are given. The king causes a handsome theatre to be constructed, and therein concerts are given of wind and stringed instruments, also vocal, with choirs of women. A play is performed entitled the *History of Couvera* (the deity of riches) and the loves of *Rambhá*, a nymph of Indra's heaven. And now a passage suggests that not only were they careful to attire their characters in fitting costumes, and not only were women allowed to perform as upon our modern stage, but that they actually had our scenic effects. It is related that, by a magical effort of the art of the Yadavas (i.e. Krishna's kinsfolk), the decorations represented, in its natural aspect, Mount Kelâsa, the Olympus of the Hindus.

The description of Krishna's city of Dwaravati, allowing for the poet's exaggeration, suggests a capital not unworthy to be placed by the side of our modern Paris. Its turrets overlook parks, flower gardens, plantations, canals and basins of water, walls resplendent with gold, woods, and the distant mountains. Its arcades are enriched with gold and precious stones, and it is surrounded by deep moats and lofty ramparts, glistening with yellow stucco. On there are placed engines of war, capable of killing 100 men at a discharge. The town contained eight principal streets and six grand squares, with a wide road or boulevard running round it. In these streets the ladies and great men could display their cortèges without crowding, for seven chariots could go abreast. The houses had staircases enriched with gold and precious stones, and the windows had golden lattices. In Krishna's palace were a thousand crystal columns, and it was chiefly constructed of precious stones. When he enters the city in triumph, vases of agreeable liquors are placed here and there, the heads of the corporations come to meet him, and the women shower down flowers upon him from the housetops.

CHARLES J. STONE, F.R.S.L., F.R. Hist. Soc.

SOCIAL AND PHILANTHROPIC INSTITUTIONS IN THE WEST.

VIII.—SOCIETY FOR PROMOTING THE EMPLOYMENT OF WOMEN.

At first sight, it would appear that this institution is one which can scarcely interest the Indian readers of this *Journal*; but, already, in the Presidency towns of India, if not in the Mofussil, there is a section of the community which asks, What shall we do with our widows and adult girls? They must have

a field for their energies, if their lives are to be made worth living; and it is also highly desirable that they should be able, at least, to contribute towards their own support. In what other ways, then, besides those of teaching and medicine, can they be employed? And even among those who have not yet admitted the idea that women may be suffered to enlarge the range of the time-honoured zenana life, there must be many thoughtful minds who are compelled to the conviction that at no distant day some concession must be made. Both these classes will read with interest some account of what is being done in England to give scope to the exercise of the various faculties of women. The former will rejoice to see in how many ways different tastes and faculties may find remunerative exercise; the latter may find in the list of occupations one or two which may compete with Berlin wool-work in giving variety to the monotony of the zenana.

The Society whose name heads this article has completed the twenty-fifth year of its existence. At the time of its establishment there was no lack of women-workers; half the women in England were toiling for subsistence, but for a very large class, more or less educated and respectably brought up, the field of remunerative employment other than in factories and workshops was practically closed. Teaching and needlework were the chief employments for those above the class of domestic service; yet it was felt that the abilities of women were by no means confined to these two branches; that their brains and their fingers were equal to many other kinds of work; but they were untrained, and in competition with trained workers they must needs prove failures. Single-handed and unassisted, such would-be workers could scarcely hope even to secure training in the face of the natural opposition of those already in possession of the field. A number of philanthropic people, taking these facts into consideration, formed an Association to promote the employment of women, to secure training for those willing to be trained, and to bring together demand and supply. The Report of the Society for the past year shows that women are being trained, and subsequently employed in the following industries with very great success:—

I.—*Artistic Work*, under which head is comprised—

1. Decorative Art, including, House Decorations, Designing for Paper-hangings, &c., Glass Painting, Mural Mosaic Work, China Painting, Designing and Painting Christmas and Birthday Cards, Colouring and Tinting Photographs, and Retouching Negatives.

2. Wood Engraving. A number of young women are

studying in the School of Wood Engraving, established by the City and Guilds of London Technical Institute.

3. Wood Carving; taught in the National School of Art, Kensington.

4. Plan Tracing.

5. Lithography; requiring artistic skill, delicacy of hand, and a long and expensive training.

II.—*Type-Writing*. It may be remembered that the heroine in James Payn's recently-published tale, *Thicker than Water*, bought a Type-Writer, and essayed to gain a living by its use in copying documents for lawyers and others. Carrying out this idea, the Committee has decided on establishing an office where ladies may work these machines, which they hope may prove self-supporting.

III.—*Dispensing Drugs*. A few have been employed in this way, but it seems to us to offer a less hopeful field than some others for women's work.

IV.—*Printing*—that is, the work of the Compositor—is an industry for which girls who have received a fair education are well adapted. In 1881 over 2,000 girls were thus employed, and the number is now, no doubt, largely increased.

V.—*Clerks and Book-keepers*. "In no branch of its work (says the Report) has the Society been more successful than in training young women to be efficient clerks and book-keepers, and in finding them situations when trained." The number so employed has increased from 404 in 1861, to 6,414 in 1881. It is interesting to know that a large staff of girls and young women is employed in the preparation of Mr. Kelly's well-known Post Office Directories; and also that a large number of young women are employed in the Postal and Telegraph offices, and that these clerkships are obtained in the face of very keen competition. Classes are held under the auspices of the Society for the study of book-keeping, and other classes for commercial French and German and shorthand are also open.

In cases where apprenticeship is required to any of the above employments, the Society advances the fees, if any, which are subsequently reclaimed in small instalments.

At the office of the Society a free Register is kept, in which women qualified in any of these branches, and in many other industries, may make known their need of employment, and where employers may meet with the kind of worker they require. The existence of such an office is a very great boon to the public, and should be made widely known. During the

past year 63 persons have obtained regular engagements through the immediate introduction of the Society, 68 girls have begun to learn some business, while temporary employment has been found on 462 occasions. Every effort is made to obtain trustworthy information on all points relating to women's work, and persons are constantly applying for such information.

The results detailed in the Report, although gratifying in themselves, are by no means the measure of the progress of public opinion with regard to the employment of women, especially in artistic and commercial industries. In aiding this progress, the Society has no doubt exercised a most important influence by the diffusion of information on the question, and by the indication of the various directions in which women's labour may be profitably utilised; and the Report gives statistics showing that according to the last census (1881) the number of women employed in artistic and commercial industries had increased threefold in the last twenty years; and we have no doubt that the next census will show a still more rapid advance.

A further proof of progress will be found in the fact that in the Report of the Royal Commission on Technical Instruction an interesting contribution to the question of the employment of women is made in a short section which describes the results of the Commissioners' visits to Schools established in most of the large towns for the industrial training of girls, and is followed by a suggestion that the experiment of establishing in every large town a middle-class or second-grade Technical School for girls might be usefully tried.

The office of the Society is at No. 22 Berners Street, Oxford Street. An annual subscription of ten shillings, or a donation of five pounds, constitutes membership.

M. S. K.

REVIEW.

REGENERATION OF INDIA. By GOPINÁTH SADÁSIVJI HÁTE, Dewan to the State of Palitana, Kathiawar; Pleader, Bombay High Court.

~~THIS~~ is an address published in the form of a pamphlet. It is conceived in a wide and liberal spirit, and is imbued throughout with a tone of friendliness and gratitude to England. The section most worthy of consideration is that on education, where the author makes suggestions that are almost of as much value to the English reader as to his own countrymen;

though there would probably be in both countries greater difficulty in putting his theories into practice than he is quite aware of.

"It is the sacred duty," he says, "of those who have received education at public expense to make an ample return for the benefits they have so derived. Let them remember that it is a debt they owe to society, and it should be the best endeavours of their lives to discharge the same. . . . Every student that has been educated at public expense should in the present exigency be made to repay gradually, to some extent, the money spent on his education in one of the following two ways: (1) Either he should after he passes his Matriculation examination, or, at his option, after he takes up a degree, should undertake to teach other youths gratis for one year, such of the students as are poor being provided with small stipends sufficient for their bare maintenance during that time; or, (2) if it is more convenient to some of them, they should contribute to the Educational Funds, say five per cent. of their pay or income, for a period of five years from the time they begin to earn. In the former case the time required for a course of study up to the Matriculation Standard may be shortened by one year by making the transfers from class to class more speedy. We can thus have every year in this Presidency a gratuitous teaching staff of from two to three hundred young men, in which case we need not despair for the cause of elementary education. It would be productive of so much good that one can hardly form an idea. Some of the higher graduates can be usefully employed on the translation of works in foreign languages into their own vernaculars. This puts me in mind of the practice resorted to in ancient times by the Shastris or Gurus in teaching the Vedjic lore to their pupils. The Guru taught his pupil in those days *gratis*, on each of them taking a solemn vow that he in his turn would teach a number of others gratis. In this way the Vedjic learning has been preserved and handed down to us through a number of centuries from hand to mouth. If now a similar vow is exacted from our undergraduate and graduate, the result would be far beyond the expectation of the most ardent advocates of education."

The author is strongly in favour of female education, and deprecates the marriage of girls at an age when they are scarcely out of childhood. He deprecates also the important

position Caste still holds among his countrymen. "Next to idolatry," he says, quoting the words of the well-known reformer, Babu Keshab Chandra Sen, "and vitally connected with its huge system, is Caste. You should deal with it as manfully and unsparingly as with idolatry. That Hindu Castism is a frightful social scourge no one can deny. It has completely and hopelessly wrecked social unity, harmony, and happiness; and for centuries it has opposed all social progress."

A few errors have crept into this pamphlet, which may possibly be owing to the printer and not to the author; the most important of which is, that the authoress of *Home Influence* and *The Mother's Recompense* is called *Augier* (p. 44); the real name is *Aguilar*.

CONSTANCE PLUMPTRE.

GIRLS' HIGH SCHOOL IN THE DECCAN.

The Annual Durbar in official celebration of the Birthday of Her Majesty the Queen and Empress of India was held in the Council Hall, Poona. Many Sirdars were present on the occasion, and the following address, announcing a scheme of female education for the Deccan, was made by Sir William Wedderburn:

Sirdars and Gentlemen,—It gives me much pleasure again to welcome you on this auspicious occasion, when we assemble to celebrate the anniversary of the Birthday of Her Majesty the Queen-Empress of India. But while we rejoice that Her Most Gracious Majesty is preserved in the enjoyment of health and strength, we must, in common with all India, feel the deepest sympathy for the bereavement which she has so recently sustained in the loss of her youngest son, His Royal Highness Prince Leopold, Duke of Albany. From a public point of view the loss is the more to be deplored on account of the amiable qualities and high ability of the young Prince, who had from an early age prepared himself for a useful public career. Especially had he devoted himself to the cause of education, thus following the example of his illustrious father, the Prince Consort. Speaking of him ten years ago, the late Lord Beaconsfield said, "He is predisposed to pursuits of science and

learning, and to the cultivation of those arts which adorn life and lend lustre to a nation." And Mr. Gladstone added, "The right honourable gentleman has not gone beyond the truth in the picture he has drawn of the large intelligence, the cultivated mind and the refined pursuits of the Prince, and of his capacity to tread, in these important respects, in the steps of his illustrious father." This love of education will, I know, commend itself specially to your sympathy, and I say so, because I remember the mode you selected of showing honour to His Royal Highness the Duke of Edinburgh, the first of Her Majesty's sons that visited India. On that occasion the Chiefs of Satara and the Southern Mahratta Country contributed a munificent endowment for female education in the Deccan, an object the most worthy for your benevolence, and the one most certain to secure the approval of Her Most Gracious Majesty. I feel confident that you are here on the right track; and that, rightly understood, there is no more important question for the upper classes of India than that of female education. Nothing must be done rashly. We must proceed with care and circumspection. Development is needed more than change. We do not want to import what is foreign, but to restore that which belongs to India by nature and by inheritance. And when we look to past history we find much to encourage us; for Indian ladies of high family were celebrated not only for their gentleness and household management, but also for their cultivated intelligence and for the ability with which they conducted affairs of State. So, looking to the future, we may well hope that care and culture will bear their natural fruit, and we may, perhaps, see revived the ideal characters of ancient times, the princesses of the Golden Age, like your classic Sakuntala, of whom the great poet Goethe says that, in naming her, you sum up all that is most beautiful in heaven and on earth. For the present we must be content with small beginnings. But you will be glad to learn that the good seed which you have sown is now about to appear above ground. The good example which you have set has been followed; further funds have been subscribed; an influential committee has been formed, and a scheme for higher female education in the Deccan has been submitted to Government. We have every reason to hope that His Excellency in Council will view our project with favour, and that a good practical beginning will have been made in Poona during the coming monsoon. In furtherance of this cause you have already given liberally in money. I hope you will not withhold that personal and social support which will secure for the scheme the confidence and approval of the whole community. And I appeal to you with great confidence to-day, because it is my

privilege to announce to you that this scheme for female education has the sympathy and support of a great and good lady, whose example you will most gladly follow. I will read to you the telegram which I have just received from the Private Secretary of His Excellency the Viceroy: "I have laid your letter before Lady Ripon, who desires me to say that she sympathises heartily in your scheme for promotion of female education, and wishes to assist it with a donation of one thousand rupees, to be applied to the establishment of a prize bearing her name, or in such other way as your Committee may prefer." We shall thus have a "Marchioness of Ripon Prize." And, gentlemen, we must feel that it is, indeed, a happy augury for our local effort, that, in its very beginning, it should be thus associated with a name which is, and ever will be, dear to every inhabitant of this vast country. Sirdars and gentlemen, I will not detain you longer; but, as education has been my topic this evening, I will conclude with the wise and noble words of the young Prince whose early death we are now deploring. He desired that education should not be the privilege of the rich only, but should be attainable by all classes. "The highest wisdom," he said, "and the highest pleasure need not be costly or exclusive, but may be almost as cheap and free as air; and the greatness of a nation must be measured, not by her wealth and apparent power, but by the degree in which all her people have learnt to gather from the world of books, of art, or of nature, a pure and ennobling joy."

We understand that Sir William Wedderburn has himself contributed Rs.10,000 towards the proposed High School.

THE EVIL OF MIXED AGES IN SCHOOLS.

Now that the Education Commission has taken up the question of improving the system of education in our country, it will not be out of place for me to say a few words about the improvement of the system of keeping schools in India. I am afraid I am a little too late. There is a great defect in the present system of keeping schools in India, which none of the witnesses seems to have mentioned; though I am not sure whether the Commission cares to attend to such defects or not. But any attempt at improvement of the whole

system of education must necessarily include also improvement in the system of managing schools. The great defect in our Indian schools is, that there are no separate schools for little boys and for grown-up boys. Boys from five years old to twenty years go to the same schools. The evil effects of this intermixture cannot be too much overrated. Even here in England, where the difference in the ages of the students of a public school is not so great, complaints on this matter are not unfrequently heard. The growth and improvement, both moral and physical, of the younger boys are very much hindered. They are in constant dread of the big boys, and very soon learn the wicked tricks of the older boys. They become prematurely ripe, and soon lose the innocence and simplicity of childhood. They cannot be free on the playground, because it is surrounded by crowds of big boys; they must hastily swallow their luncheon in the refreshment-room, and leave it as soon as possible (in India boys are not allowed to go home for luncheon), because it is a place of amusement for the older boys, and they are sure to be oppressed. Thus a child in school cannot enjoy the spirit of freedom and ease which is so necessary for the sound growth of the mind and body. Besides, the moral corruption which most pitiously results from this sort of mixture is not unknown to anyone who has passed his youthful days in schools.

I know that many parents and guardians complain of this evil in school education, but no one cares to attempt an improvement; and, what is more lamentable, men of good education and experience who have been lately founding schools in Bengal and elsewhere generally overlook this defect in the system of managing schools. All try to follow the old system of Government schools. There ought to be separate schools for little boys, with their own playgrounds and picture-galleries and refreshment-rooms, where they can be free and enjoy themselves. The spirit of independence and self-reliance, which is so often wanting in the Indian character, ought to be instilled into young hearts, in order to make men of enterprising mind; for "the boy makes the man."

S. B.

SHORNALATA: A TALE OF HINDU LIFE.

BY TARAK NATH GANGULI.

*Translated for this Journal by Mrs. J. B. KNIGHT.**(Continued from page 322.)**(All rights in this translation remain with the author of the tale.)*

[For the assistance of the reader the names of the principal characters in the following chapters are subjoined.]

Sasibhusan, the elder brother.

Pramada, his wife.

Bipin, their son.

Kamini, their daughter.

Bidhubhusan, the younger brother.

Gopal, his son.

Shyama, the female servant.

Nilkamal, a strolling fiddler.

Biprodas Chakravarti, a rich resident of Burdwan.

Shornalata, his daughter.

Hem Chandra, his son.

CHAPTER XL.

FIRE RESCUES SHORNALATA.

This is Shornalata's wedding-day. In the house of the bridegroom there is great confusion. English musicians have been engaged from Calcutta, and the outer courtyard is full of village lads. The bridegroom is not much to look at as he sits among the school-fellows that have been invited to his wedding. How much the bride and groom are cossetted upon the wedding-day! Even if they be poor they will be made much of on that occasion; even if they be ugly they are visited by all. Those who have seen the groom daily from his birth regard him in a new light. A voice calls to the bridegroom to come into the middle of the assembly. With an appearance of reluctance he leaves his companions and comes forward; but the unwillingness is external only.

Shashanka rose early that morning, and calling Shornalata, said to her, "You will take no food to-day, Shornalata!"

Feigning astonishment, Shornalata asked, "Why?"

"It is your wedding-day."

The evil smile on the face of Shashanka made Shornalata's heart tremble. It seemed to her that he did not look the same as on other days, but like one of the demons spoken of in books. Again he said, "To-day you are to be married." At the sight of his evil countenance, Shornalata's bathfulness fled; her whole frame trembling with anger, she said, "Who will give me in marriage? Where is it to take place?"

With the same smile Shashanka answered, "If your father were living he would do so; as he is not, I will. Where the

marriage is to take place you know; you heard all about it the other night." Shornalata trembled with anger and fear. How, she thought, could Shashanka know that she had only feigned sleep? By science, or by some quality of his mind? She said, "You are a very benevolent Guru, certainly."

He answered, "If I am not benefiting others, I am benefiting myself." Then presently added, "Who says I am not benefiting others? The arrangement I have made for your marriage is just what your father wished."

"Never!" exclaimed Shornalata.

"Well, if it was not his wish, it is mine."

"Who consults your will in the marriage? Those who are to be married do not wish it."

"The bridegroom does wish it; his consent was obtained before."

"What is his consent to me? I am not willing."

"That is the fault of your people. They have given you a smattering of education, and that has made you forget shame, modesty, and all sense of your own advantage. I advise you for your own good to make no disturbance. It is not lucky to oppose an auspicious arrangement."

He was about departing when Shornalata said, "Where are you going? Since yesterday you have kept me locked in. Release me. I will go to Calcutta."

"Not to-day. When you are married you may go."

Advancing towards the door, Shornalata said, "I will scream out 'Murder!' till the people in the street break open the door and come in." Shashanka seized her hand and dragged her towards the house; she struggled, but what power had she against Shashanka? He took her into the room, and going out again, locked the door on the outside. Shornalata screamed. "Cry away, as much as you please," said the priest, and there-with departed.

He went to the bridegroom's house, and calling thence to the musicians, took them to the courtyard of his own house, bidding them play so loudly as to drown the sound of any screams within the house. In vain Shornalata wept, scolded, or entreated; the cruel Shashanka would not heed. She said, "If you release me I will give you twice the money you are to get by this marriage. I will give you a written promise to bestow on you all the money my father left me if you send me to my brother."

"You will not have possession of the money to-day to give me, else I should not object."

"I promise that I will give it to you."

"Shashanka Shekar, Shornalata, has no faith in promises."

"Tell me what you have faith in, and I will do it."

"I believe in getting you married."

"You have a daughter. Fancy that I am your daughter. Would you force your daughter in marriage?"

"My daughter is not a shameless girl like you to oppose any marriage I arrange for her. Where I give her in marriage she will marry. In this matter she is not like you; she is not learned, and her brother does not know English."

In shame Shornalata remained silent. Left to herself Shornalata counted the hours. The train at Serampur went and came, and at the usual times stopped at the station. Every time it did so Shornalata thought, Now some one has come to take me away. How many hopes are doomed to disappointment! If all could be realised, earth would be like heaven. Time after time disappointed Shornalata persuaded herself that on this day all the trains were going to Calcutta, none coming thence.

The day came gradually to an end—the sun has no compassion. How many invalids lie on their beds trembling at the approach of night! How many craft upon the ocean regard the setting sun with anxiety, in fear of losing their course! As the day closed how Shornalata wept at the thought that she was about to be plunged into an ocean of sorrow from which during life she could not hope to escape! Had not the heart of the sun one movement of compassion at the sight of such suffering? Alas! when your son is at the point of death, how many hundreds of other people's sons are being married; how many heirs are coming to thrones; how many into the possession of wealth! Can the sun be partial? Does he retard his setting by an hour to save me, or hasten it to benefit another? The sun is impartial.

As evening deepened Shornalata's anxiety increased. Now another thought took possession of her. It must be that her brother was worse; or—and her heart trembled—yet worse, a frightful event might have occurred. These two days Shashanka had not been to Calcutta. Shornalata forgot her own peril in anxiety as to her brother's condition. No one came to her from whom she could inquire. The priest was extremely busy, and had no leisure to bestow upon her; his wife and daughter had been locked up all day in the women's apartments.

It was now night; there was a cloud or two in the sky, and a soft spring breeze was blowing. The ill-favoured bridegroom, dressed in silk and adorned with flowers and sandal-wood powder, came forward and took a place in the middle of the assembly, his boy friends bantering him. The officiating priest appeared. Shashanka, sitting at some little distance, counted the money as it was paid to him by Haridas. Shornalata sat

weeping in her prison; since night set in she had given up all hope of deliverance. "Oh God! this was my fate!" she said, amidst her weeping. Who listened to her weeping? All were immersed in pleasure, and Shashanka taking his money. This done, he and Haridas went amongst the company. They saw that all was ready and that it was time to bring in the bride. Shashanka set forth to do so. The moment the door was opened Shornalata threw herself at Shashanka's feet crying, and saying, "Tell me first how my brother is, otherwise I cannot go."

"Your brother is well."

"Swear to me by your child's head that that is true." Shornalata was so distracted she scarcely knew what she said.

"I tell you truly your brother is well. It is because he is well that I am in such haste to get you married. If he were thoroughly recovered would he consent to this marriage? If he died you would remain in my hands, and this hurry would not be called for."

Shornalata saw the probability of Shashanka's words. She said, "Don't marry me against my will; do not, do not! It will not be good for you; I shall certainly hang myself!"

The hardened Shashanka replied, "If once I have made you fairly over, you may take poison or hang yourself, it will do me no harm. All that concerns me is to get you into their hands." Again he smiled his evil smile.

Shornalata clasped his feet. Shashanka stooped to seize her hand, when she sprang up, ran into a corner, and tying the end of her *sari* round her neck, said, "If you advance one step from where you are standing I will strangle myself."

"Shornalata, it is childish to act in this way. Is it possible you can escape from me? Come quietly; all the signs are auspicious. I must give you in marriage this night. If we neglect the signs it will be evil for your future." Thus saying, he advanced a step.

"Then I strangle myself! If I am to be married, it shall be in death."

As she spoke these words a frightful noise was heard outside. Astonished, both looked that way. There was a light in all directions, as of a conflagration. Shashanka perceived that his large worship-hall was aflame!

CHAPTER XLI.

SASIBHUSAN'S EYES ARE OPENED.

Sasibhusan left the house of Ram Sundar, went home and related all to Pramada, who sighed several times, but made no remark. After sitting beside her husband for some time in

silence, she rose as though to go away. Sasibhusan asked, "Where are you going? Have you nothing to say to what I have told you?"

Pramada replied, "I am coming back;" and went down stairs to her mother.

All the wealth possessed by Sasibhusan was in Pramada's name. The Government securities, the house, the land, were all in her name. Even the ready money was in her hands. Pramada had represented to Sasibhusan that property invested in the wife's name could not be claimed by any partner, and in the case of dispute about debts such property could not be sold; but that if invested in the husband's name it could be seized by any creditor. In the wife's name it was safe. Thus instructed, Sasibhusan had religiously observed this precaution all through. Formerly, as Bidhubhusan had had no means for paying the ground-rent of his share of the land, Sasibhusan had paid for the whole, else the land would have been lost to both. By Pramada's advice he had ceased to pay the ground-rent, and when the land was sold had bought it in Pramada's name. Whenever there was any cash in hand, he had, at Pramada's persuasion, turned it into ornaments for her. "Cash once spent," she had said, "is gone for ever; but if it be turned into jewellery it is always available. When wanted, it can be pawned or sold."

Truly the goddess of Fortune dwelt in Sasibhusan's house!

To-day Sasibhusan had need of Rs. 4,000. He came home with a careless heart. He had but to speak to Pramada to obtain the money; he would not even need to ask it. When Pramada saw his position in his face, she would give him the money. But when Pramada left him without speaking, Sasibhusan's mind became a little restless. What was the cause of this? Would Pramada refuse the money? At this idea Sasibhusan shook his head, thinking, "That can never be."

Pramada went down and called her mother, and on her coming asked, "Is there anyone about?" Being told no, she added, "Then come and sit on this *taktaposh*, and listen." All excitement, the mother, saying "What is it?" sat down close to Pramada, their bodies touching.

"Do you want to crush me at once?" snapped the daughter.

"No, child; no, child; I did not mean to hurt you."

"You have no eyes, I think; you have become blind. If you have ears, listen; if not, say so, and I will be silent."

"Speak, speak; I am listening."

Pramada, obliged to pardon her mother, said, "Have you heard what has happened?"

"No."

"Do you sit all day with a stopper in your ears?"

"If you don't tell me what goes on, how should I hear? You tell me nothing."

"There is no need of further preface. Listen. The day the Sahib came he gave orders that if 'he' (Sasibhusan) could not give correct accounts he should be dismissed."

The mother, feigning astonishment, exclaimed, "Destruction! What is to be done now?"

"If you scream out in that manner, I'll go away."

"I won't call out again."

Pramada, again pardoning her mother, went on. "The accounts can't be made straight. All that could be taken owing to the Babu's drunkenness has been taken. We have not stolen it, but have received our share of that which others have stolen. So now 'he' must go to jail, or be transported to the Andamans. It is certainly a matter for transportation."

"Has he no resource?" the mother asked eagerly.

"There is a remedy, but even that is not in his hands. If he distributes Rs. 4,000, among the other clerks he will be saved. He says it would save him, but I have no faith in it."

The mother was a poor man's daughter, a poor man's wife; it is doubtful if she had ever seen as much as Rs. 50 together. At the mention of Rs. 4,000 she remained staring in astonishment. The sum represented no idea to her mind; she could not conceive it. But, lest anything she could say should anger Pramada, she remained silent.

"Have you nothing to say?" demanded her daughter.

"How many rupees did you say?"

"Four thousand."

"How many twenties is that?"

"May you die! you are not a baby," exclaimed Pramada, angrily.

The mother was silent. Pramada went on, "If we pay Rs. 4,000 there will be scarcely anything left. The Government securities and the jewellery must all go. Now what is to be done?"

The mother was in a great strait. People say the dumb make no enemies, but that is a delusion. If the mother were silent, Pramada scolded her; if she spoke, Pramada scolded her. Above or below she could find no suitable answer. Pramada resumed: "My opinion is, that if we give the money he will not be saved. Our last money will be gone, and we shall starve. Therefore I propose that we take the securities, the cash, and the ornaments, and go away. If we remain here we shall be overwhelmed with shame; at a distance we shall not feel it. If I give the money, and he is sent to the Andamans, then we

must go about begging. That will not do. What do you say, mother?"

The mother had now got her cue. At the stroke of the whip, she replied, "There is no mistake about that. When the astrologer gives up his books he wanders about like a lost creature. Let no descendant of mine do that."

Having come to this determination, Pramada went to Sasibhusan, who asked where she had been.

"I have been with my mother; she is ill, and I went to see her."

"What do you say about giving the money?"

"When it is wanted I will give it."

Sasibhusan had not the courage to say more. Early the next morning Ram Sundar Babu, accompanied by two *piyadas*, came to Sasibhusan's house and asked to see him. Sasibhusan went down stairs to welcome him. Ram Sundar said, "If you mean giving money to anyone, let me have the sum now; there is no time to spare. A manager has arrived on the part of the Government to look into the accounts. These *piyadas* are sent to summon you. If you don't give the money now the whole will be revealed at the *kacheri*."

Sasibhusan went up to his wife and said, "Give me the money, all the securities, and as much of the jewellery as is needed to make up Rs. 4,000."

"Can it not be given at another time?"

"No."

"Is there any special advantage in giving it?"

"I shall be saved thereby; otherwise I shall be transported."

After a further silence Pramada said, "I do not understand how giving this money will save you. I think if it is given the money will be lost, and you also."

Then Sasibhusan's heart trembled. He said, "If I go, what good will the money be?"

With darkening face, Pramada answered, "Are we to go begging from door to door? Will that be good in your eyes?"

Sasibhusan's bosom swelled as if it would burst. He sat down beside Pramada, and said gently, "Why should you have to beg? We have land; the house remains in your name. You will be independent, and if you give the money I shall be saved!"

Pramada sat with downcast face. Her husband said, "Give the money quickly; the people are waiting below. If there be delay it will be all one whether the money is given or not."

Still Pramada spoke not. Then Sasibhusan said angrily, "Will you give it, or not?"

"If you are so rough, I will not."

"I was to blame. I beg of you to give it to me."

Pramada wept, saying, "There is no one so hard as you. For some time your brother vexed me; now he is gone, you do so. There is no more happiness in my destiny. Why did my father marry me into such a house?" She could say no more, but cried loudly.

Sasi was if struck by a thunderbolt. He sat silent, listening.

Wiping her eyes, Pramada said, "You are going; and in what condition do you leave me?"

"You can save me. If you give the money, I shall have no more trouble."

Pramada sobbed, and breathed heavily. From below, Ram Sundar called out, "Sasi Babu! come; it is late." Sasi called out, "Coming!" and clasping Pramada's feet, entreated her with tears: "Save me, Pramada; if you do not, no one can. At your feet I beseech you to save me."

Pramada began to scream, as if some one were beating her. "Father! I never dreamed that this would be my fate. My life is spent in sorrow! Why did you marry me into this house?"

At the sound of Pramada's crying, her mother came upstairs, and hearing her last words, added her own lamentations, like a commentator, saying, "I said to your father at the time that it would not end happily. He would not listen to me, child; but would marry you here. Do not blame me, my child. And Gadadhar Chandra, where is he now?" Pramada and her mother, like storm and fire together, compassed Sasibhusan's destruction. Ram Sundar called from the *boitakhana*, "Come quickly, Sasi Babu; or the *piyadus* will enter the house."

At these words Sasi sprang up, maddened. "Pramada, all these days I have considered your advice good. You called me stupid; I was truly stupid; otherwise, why should I, at the word of such a wicked woman as you, have sent my dear brother Bidhu from the house? Why should I cause the death of Sarala? Until Sarala entered my house I had no troubles; my household was like that of a king. By your advice I cut her off from us. When she was dying of hunger, by your advice I gave her no food. When she died of starvation, then I knew all respectability had gone from me. You were the murderer of Sarala. You made my beloved brother a beggar. There was but myself left, and now you are destroying me. As I have sown, so am I reaping. You are not in fault; I am now reaping the reward of our treatment of our golden Sarala."

With these words Sasi, glancing wildly round with terrible eyes like those of a madman, rushed out of the house, followed by Ram Sundar Babu. All at the *kacheri*, were frightened at the sight of his face. No one speaking a word, he voluntarily con-

fessed his malpractices, adding, "These are my offences; give me the punishment they deserve." All stood speechless. The manager, a deputy-collector, seeing Sasibhusan's condition, was much concerned; still he could do no other than the right thing; so he wrote down Sasibhusan's confessions. All in the *kacheri* were more or less implicated in his doings. The mohurir, the treasurer, the accountants, and Ram Sundar Babu went with Sasibhusan to the House of Detention. All being under arrest, the manager thought that as Sasibhusan was most guilty, his property should be sold to recoup the losses to the Zemindar; and lest the movable property should be carried away, he sent some police peons to take charge of Sasibhusan's house.

It is evening, the sky cloudy, the wind high; the rain began to fall, which made the air cold. The Daroga, Dinobandhu Babu, and Romesh, the constable, were placing the policemen in charge of the house. To-day the Daroga had come himself; he would trust no one else to set the men about their duty. In cold weather the duty of setting a watch is not pleasant, especially when one is not accustomed to the work. Presently, being vexed, Dinobandhu Babu said, "Romesh, you know that I never employ Government servants to do my private work. If I bid you do anything, it is in friendship. Can you bring me a measure of something from Ramdhan's shop? It is very cold." After mentioning Ramdhan's name, and also a measure, it was needless to specify the article. Romesh answered, "Why offer any apology? If you want it, I can get it." In a short time the stuff was brought. The Daroga, inserting his forefinger in the neck of the bottle, turned it up; then, putting it down again, put his finger in the flame of the lamp; it did not burn well. With a grimace he said, "Romesh, thinking you a new hand, they have cheated you." But for all that the stuff was not returned; by degrees it was consumed.

While the Daroga was drinking, some-one called Romesh. In five minutes he returned. The Daroga was not satisfied with his first draught, and making the same excuse, he sent Romesh for another half-quartern. This time Romesh was long in bringing it. The Daroga did not try its strength. As he drank he fancied himself upon a bed of down, and, under this idea, laid down. In a moment he was snoring; whereupon Romesh advanced to the house-door and knocked thereat. It was immediately opened. We have said before that book-writers can penetrate everywhere. Where Romesh Babu entered, the writer entered with him. What did he see? Pramada and her mother, with all their clothes and valuables ready packed. The mother whispered to Romesh, "By which door shall we go, the private or the public?"

"The public door."

Then the mother said to Pramada, "Let us not delay longer." Pramada counted some money into Romesh Babu's hand, who, re-counting, secured it. At last the mother with a bundle of apparel, and Pramada with a tin box in her hand, went out of the house. Romesh following, shut them out. Bipin, Kamini, and all the servants remained in the house. Pramada's design from the beginning had been to go to her father's dwelling. They proceeded to the *ghat*, where they found the boat waiting; and silently the two stepped in, and the boatman loosened the fastening. When they had got some distance the storm, which had raged since evening, increased a hundred-fold. The sky was thickly enveloped in clouds, and all was darkness. The hail came down furiously. Every moment the eyes were dazzled by flashes of lightning. Great trees were rooted up, and the thunder rolled with a frightful noise. The howling of the wind was deafening. Many birds fell from the trees into the river. Houses were levelled with the earth. Pramada's boat was submerged. A great lamentation arose. No one could see or hear amid the darkness and the din. The boatmen swam ashore. Pramada's mother, supported by the bundle of clothes, floated along and was cast ashore. Pramada's box was very heavy; yet she could not give it up. The water began to gurgle in her throat; gradually her whole frame relaxed, and with her box she sank. A moment later a strong wave threw her on the shore.

(To be continued.)

VALMIKI, THE GREAT EPIC POET OF INDIA.

Homer, in Greece; Virgil and Dante, in Italy; Milton, in England, were great epic poets. Similarly, the epic poet of India was Valmiki. He was the author of the *Ramayana*. It recounts the exploits of Rama (the greatest sovereign of the Solar dynasty, who ruled at Ayodhya, one of the most ancient cities of Hindustan), in five hundred cantos, comprising in all twenty-four thousand stanzas, in the Sanscrit language, which the early Aryans called the language of the gods.

All our knowledge of Valmiki may be said to be derived from his own poem. He was a Brahma rishi, or Brahmin sage, living near the banks of the river Tamasa, surrounded by a great number of disciples. Once upon a time the sage

Narada paid him a visit. Valmiki asked him, "Sire, who is the greatest of men on earth?" Narada replied, "Rama." Then he requested Narada for an epitome of the life of Rama. The sage gave it to him. Valmiki was meditating on the best mode of composing the life of Rama, with the view of handing it down to posterity. While his thoughts were thus engaged, he was walking on the banks of the Thamasa, when he saw a hunter kill a male *crounchi*, and the female bird bewailing the death of its beloved mate. The sight affected the sage deeply. He exclaimed, in verse, "O hunter, thou shalt not long live in glory; for thou hast killed one of a couple of *crounchies* absorbed in mutual love." This proved to be an *anushtap* stanza, a form of Sanscrit verse very nearly the same as blank verse in English. The poet composed the *Ramayana* in the metre, with, here and there, stanzas of a different character.

The popular tradition in India about the origin of Valmiki is this:—His name may be interpreted into "a person born of an ant-hill." It was thought that he must have emerged from one. He is therefore represented to have originally been a hunter who had a large family, and who lived by plundering travellers. Once, Vishnu, who is the protecting principle of the Hindu Trinity, came to the hunter, desirous of emancipating him from his thralldom to his evil passions, and asked him for the name of a tree that stood opposite. The illiterate marauder called it "*mara*" (the Dravidian word for a tree), and continued repeating the term, which soon transposed itself into "Rama" in the course of repetition. After repeating the name incessantly for a long time, the hunter began to contemplate the virtues of the illustrious personage who bore it. Thus years passed away, and yet the hunter was absorbed in the meditation of the holy name, "Rama." An ant-hill rose over him, and out of this the holy Valmiki emerged eventually, the hunter having thus been transformed into a sage. Beyond the plausible meaning of the name, there is nothing to sustain this romantic theory.

We do not know much of the private life and character of Homer or Shakespeare; but what ideas do we not form of the greatness of their minds from their immortal works! Do we not dive into the very depths of their hearts, when we carefully scan the feelings and sentiments which animate their writings,

and furnish us with incontestible evidence of "the stuff they were made of"? Even so, a careful study of the great poem of Valmiki gives us a clear insight into his sublime genius, enriched by his sound and varied learning, adorned by a style at once simple and inimitable, and enlivened by a warmth of feeling and genuineness of sentiment that have long endeared him to the people of India; so much so, that they have a saying among them to this effect, "We are proud of three things: our Himalaya mountains, our river Ganges, and our great poet Valmiki."

P. V. RAMASWAMI RAJU.

MEDICAL WOMEN FOR INDIA.

His Highness the Maharaja of Travancore has offered, and the Government has accepted, a donation of Rs.6,000 for the establishment of a scholarship entitled "Bharati Lakshmi," and for the reward of a gold medal annually in the Medical College, to encourage female medical education in the Madras Presidency. The scholarship, worth Rs.15 per month, is open to all women, irrespective of nationality or creed, but is limited to those who have matriculated, or have passed the Higher Examination of Women. It is tenable for four years by a candidate for the L.M.S. degree or College diploma, and for five years by a candidate for the M.B. and C.M. degree. The thanks of the Government have been accorded to the Maharaja for this additional instance of his enlightened liberality.

Mrs. Anandibai Joshi, who went last year to the United States for the study of Medicine, has passed the Matriculation Examination of the Pennsylvania Women's Medical College, Philadelphia.

We understand that the Maharani Surnomoye of Kassimbazar has contributed Rs.1,000 to the Bareilly College Fund, and that she intends to establish some medical classes in her own district.

It has been announced by the Bengal Government that when a sufficient number of female students have been enrolled in the Calcutta Medical College, ten special scholarships will be created for them, five tenable for four years and five for five years.

In the Annual Report of the Madras Medical College, Session 1882-83, signed by the Acting Principal, Surgeon-Major J. Keess, M.D., the following paragraphs appear under the heading *Lady Students* :—

At the commencement of the Session there were eight lady

students on the rolls of the College. Two of these, who came to us from Calcutta, had previously passed, one the First in Arts and the other the Matriculation Examination of the Calcutta University, and are holders of Bethune Scholarships. Of the six who were in the classes last year, one has resigned. The others, with the expiration of this Session, complete their second year's course of study.

Miss D'Abreu, of Calcutta, is in the M.B. Section of the Senior Department, and she is qualifying for the M.B. degree. She will, in a few days, appear for the Preliminary Scientific Examination. Misses Hayes and Abala Dás (the latter also from Calcutta) are in the class qualifying for the L.M. and S. degree.

Misses Stewart, Yerbury, Ramsbotham and Smith are qualifying for the College diploma. These appeared for the Primary Examination. Three out of the four failed to pass.

The report of the Professors on these students is, on the whole, satisfactory. During the Session they were attached to the General Hospital, and worked well as Clinical Clerks.

Mrs. Scharlieb's success has again brought our College prominently to public notice both here and in Europe. This lady studied at the Madras Medical College for three years, and then proceeded to London, in order to study for the M.B. degree of the London University, a professional qualification that she has taken with high honours, especially in Obstetric Medicine, in which she took the highest place in the First Class, and won the Scholarship and Gold Medal.

It is to be hoped that, on her return, she will find a suitable field of labour at Madras. Mrs. Scharlieb's success ought to be an inducement to ladies with an aptitude for medical work to study for the profession. The field for medical women in India is as yet almost unoccupied, and the hope is, that before long the expectations entertained by Surgeon-General E. G. Balfour, the officer who first moved the Government to institute a class of lady practitioners, may be fully realised.

The Principals of the Calcutta and Bombay Medical Colleges asked for information regarding our Female Classes, and whether any difficulty is experienced in conducting their education. The replies sent are in favour of the institution of similar classes in those Colleges.

Mr. Grigg, the Director of Public Instruction, in presenting the Report to the Madras Government, remarks as follows on the portion relating to lady students:—

The progress made by the lady students may, on the whole, be considered satisfactory. Miss D'Abreu, from Calcutta, has passed the Preliminary Scientific Examination, and is qualifying

for the M.B. degree. Misses Hayes and Abala Dás are in the class qualifying for the L.M.S. degree. Four other ladies are qualifying for the College Diploma. The failure of three of these is to be regretted; but the Acting Principal thinks it is due rather to the overcrowding of subjects into the second year of study, to remedy which he has suggested a change of curriculum, than to any defects in the candidates themselves. They are reported to have worked well and successfully during the year as Clinical Clerks in the General Hospital, to which they were attached.

On the whole, the Professors and the Principal are to be congratulated on the success which has attended their efforts in imparting medical instruction to female students in conjunction with male students—a stage still unattained in the sister Presidencies of Bombay and Bengal. The Acting Principal reports that the Principals of the Medical Colleges in the other Presidencies have been in correspondence with him, in view to institute similar female classes there. The example of Mrs. Scharlieb will, doubtless, have a favourable effect on the education of women in medicine in the country generally.

The suggestion made by the Acting Principal, that female students of the Second Department should also attend a course of lectures of the Professor of Midwifery, should be brought before the College Council, and the result reported.

The following are the Rules for the admission of Female Pupils into the Agra Medical School: They are dated Agra, October 20th, 1883:—

1. Candidates may be married or unmarried, but must not be under 16 nor above 30 years of age.
2. They must furnish an approved certificate of respectability and good moral character.
3. A good knowledge of Urdu or Hindi is requisite, and, failing this, the candidate should be able to read and write Hindi in the Roman character. Some knowledge of English is also desirable.
4. Candidates should know Arithmetic as far as the Rule-of-Three.
5. An Entrance Examination in these subjects; viz., Urdu or Hindi and Arithmetic, will be held at the Medical School on the 1st June every year, and all who possess a fair knowledge of them will be allowed to join the female class.
6. Instructions in professional subjects will be given free of all charges and female pupils will be allowed to attend the wards of the Thomason Hospital, and to watch the practice of the medical officers.
7. Pupils must supply themselves with text-books at their own expense. These are published in Urdu, and can be obtained at the Medical School.
8. Instructions will be given in the

subjects of an ordinary medical education; viz., Anatomy, Chemistry, Pharmacy, Surgery, practice of Medicine and Midwifery. 9. During the lectures the female pupils will be screened off from the male students, and a Matron will exercise constant supervision over them. 10. After studying for three years, a certificate will be given to all who pass the Final Examination. 11. At present four female pupils are attending the school; but if there is a prospect of a larger number coming forward next June, a house or bungalow will be rented for their accommodation and placed in charge of the Matron. 12. Parties wishing to send female pupils to the school may reckon that Rs. 10, per mensem will cover all expenses, including cost of books and contribution towards house-rent. Further particulars may be had on application.

SURGEON-MAJOR A. HILSON, M.D.,
Principal of the Medical School, Agra.

INDIAN INTELLIGENCE.

Baboo Brojo Mohun Dutt, Rai Bahadoor, Judge of the Court of Small Causes at Kishangur, has founded an annual prize of Rs. 40 for the encouragement of female education in Bengal, and has accepted the following conditions for the award of the prize:—(1) That the competition be open to all educated women being natives of Bengal, without regard to age. (2) That the prize be given for an essay, to be written in either Bengalee or Sanskrit. (3) That the essays be sent to the Central Text-Book Committee for adjudication within six months of the date of advertisement. (4) That each essay be accompanied by the written declaration of the husband, parent, or guardian of the competitor, that to the best of his belief she has received no assistance of any kind, direct or indirect, in writing the essay. The subject of the essay for the first year is, "The Educational Value of the Study of History."

It is stated that the Bengal Government has sanctioned a grant of Rs. 5,000 to Babu Protap Chunder Roy, in aid of the expense of the publication of his English translation of the *Mahābhārata*.

The Report of the Alipore Jail Reformatory School for last year is very satisfactory, not only in regard to the discipline and general behaviour of the inmates, but as to the conduct of the boys who have been released. Out of 58 magistrates' reports, 52 were to the effect that the boys were going on well and bearing a good character.

Mr. John Adam, M.A., has been appointed Principal of Pachappa's College, Madras, and will probably enter on his duties in September. Mr. Adam, after taking the degree of Master of Arts in the University of Aberdeen, with the highest Honours in Mathematics and Natural Philosophy, in 1868, proceeded to Cambridge, and in 1872 was 23rd Wrangler in the Mathematical Tripos.

It is pleasant to note that Mr. Skrine, Magistrate of Howrah, gave a fête to native children on Her Majesty's birthday.

PERSONAL INTELLIGENCE.

In the recent Open Competitive Examination for the Civil Service of India, Mr. Arthur G. Chuckerbutty and Mr. Loken Palit were among the thirty-eight successful candidates. Mr. Chuckerbutty stood first in the list, with 2,034 total marks.

Mr. Charles Goluknath, B.A., Cambridge (Inner Temple), and Mr. Narendra Natha Mitra (Middle Temple) were called to the Bar on June 25th.

Mr. Jafarkuli F. Mirza, L.R.C.P. London, of the Bombay Medical School, has passed the Membership Examination of the Royal College of Surgeons.

Arrival.—Kumar Bhabendra Narayan, of Cooch Behar.

Departures.—Mr. Ganga Ram, C.E., and Mr. Balmokand, C.E., Punjab Government Engineering Students; Mr. Adhar Singh Gour, Extra Assistant Commissioner, Central Provinces.

The fact that the names of two Indian gentlemen appear in the list of successful candidates for the Indian Civil Service Competition of this year is especially gratifying to the members of the National Indian Association, and to all who desire to see a honourable career open to the natives of India in connection with the administration of law and justice among their own countrymen. Mr. Chuckerbutty has achieved the wholly unprecedented distinction of appearing at the head of the list, and Mr. Palit, who is the son of a gentleman already practising with much success in the Calcutta Courts, has also obtained a good place. Both students are, we believe, as young as the regulations of the competition permit. It is understood that the number of candidates of marked ability and high promise was this year exceptionally large; and there is therefore all the more reason for congratulating the Indian candidates on the honourable position they have won. "

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TECHNICAL INSTRUCTION.

The Report of the Royal Commission on Technical Instruction, which has been recently issued, contains much which will be both interesting and suggestive to Indian readers. Its investigations have been carried out in all the principal countries of Europe; viz., (1) Austria, (2) Belgium, (3) France, (4) Germany, (5) Holland, (6) Italy, and (7) Switzerland; countries which, after all, do not differ more widely as to race, habits, language, and conditions than do those which are now comprised within the limits of our Indian Empire and its dependencies. A special report on the state of Education in Canada and the United States is also given, showing development on somewhat different lines in communities full of industrial energy, and with the boundless resources of the new world lying open before them.

Agricultural Education is discussed separately in a very able report by Mr. H. M. Jenkins, one of the Sub-Commissioners, which is well worthy of the careful perusal of those interested in the soil of India. These several reports enter into a large mass of detail, so well arranged that reference to them is made easy, but of so various and voluminous a nature that it is impossible to give any adequate summary of them within the compass of an article.

The general Report commences wisely and well with a concise notice of the state of primary education in the several

countries referred to. Practical experience forcibly brings home the truth that this must be the true basis of national prosperity. Nothing can be more futile than the argument that, as a few only can be leaders or discoverers, training need only be given to those of superior natural ability, or in the higher grades of social life. It is quite true that a few only are capable of receiving the highest order of culture, or of carrying out investigations to new conclusions which can usefully be put into practice; but it is not less true that if the masses are suffered to grow up in ignorance they will be altogether unable to do that varied measure of work which civilization requires from them. In social and industrial life it is as in an army. Very few are fitted by Nature for the highest commands; many more, yet still only a small minority, can fulfil subordinate offices; but, not the less, the discipline and intelligence of the rank and file is that which gives irresistible strength to the whole organisation.

The movement in favour of intermediate technical schools, which has been to a very large extent developed within the last 10 or 15 years, has thus afforded a most powerful stimulus to primary education. A knowledge of reading, writing, and the elements of arithmetic, and habits of order and attention acquired in the early days of childhood, are an essential preparation for every career.

The comparison made by the Commissioners of the different countries under review gives the first place to our French neighbours, as far as regards the logical consistency of their system. Geometrical and free-hand drawing from models, and also the use of tools, are frequently taught in primary schools. The German system is also elaborately devised to carry on instruction, either on the old classical lines or in science and the useful arts, to the highest range. The strictly primary schools are for the elementary instruction of children from 6 to 14; but those who can avail themselves of the secondary and technical schools frequently undergo special preparation from the age of 9 or 10 years. Most of the Communes of Switzerland stand well as regards provision made for education, and a peculiar feature in this country is the small schools which have been for many years established to give instruction in ancient handicrafts practised in the rural districts, especially of those Cantons where domestic industries have flourished almost from time immemorial.

Zurich has, however, taken the lead in technical instruction of a more formal and scientific character.

It is a noteworthy fact also that in Belgium, notwithstanding the demand for labour in manufactures, and the absence of any factory laws, custom is gradually restricting the age for the employment of children to 12 years or over. In this country the restrictions placed on the hours of labour have certainly not impaired either the quantity or the quality of the work done, but the reverse; and practical experience is leading other countries to the same conclusion.

In Italy education is by law free and compulsory wherever schools have been provided, but deficiencies in this respect have still to be supplied in many quarters. This country has many difficulties yet to overcome, but its progress is eminently satisfactory, and the natural genius of the people is asserting itself under improved social conditions.

Another interesting feature is the general growth of schools to take up and carry on the education of those who have to begin to earn their living at an early age. *Evening Schools* are founded not merely to remedy the deficiencies of elementary teaching in childhood, but to maintain and carry on suitable instruction in connection with the work of life in after years.

But, while fully appreciating the work done by our continental neighbours, the Commissioners see no reason to suppose that this country is being beaten in this honourable rivalry. The Science and Art Department at South Kensington, and the City and Guilds of London Institute, which has recently been established in permanent head-quarters in the same locality, are doing work throughout the country which will bear comparison with that carried out in any other. They work on the general principle, on which so much has already been done, of granting *aid* to institutions adequately established and supported in any part of the kingdom, for extending a knowledge of the principles which underlie all applied art and all industrial occupations. A constantly increasing degree of local energy is shown in response to the encouragement afforded by the State, but local and personal exertion and supervision are always an essential condition of recognition by the representatives of Government.

The following extract of a Report from Owens College, Manchester, by Professor Osborne Reynolds, F.R.S., very well

shows the relative position which this country holds in Europe as regards Educational organisation of this nature :—

“As compared with the parallel courses given in the Polytechnic Schools on the Continent, I consider, that our course aims at a much smaller range of book work ; that we leave the student to acquire by observation and experience much which they attempt to teach him ; that our course is rather to teach him to understand what he sees, while theirs is to teach him to produce things which he has not seen. This difference arises mainly from the fact that in England there are much greater facilities afforded for the acquirement of technical knowledge in the works” (that is, in the works of private manufacturers). “Where such facilities exist the College training should be determined rather with a view to general education than to the acquirement of technical knowledge. Although, where the subjects are of equal educational value, it is clearly best to choose those which have the closest relation to the professional work.”

This is sound common-sense, very clearly expressed. It indicates a true course of training, which, while it is thoroughly practical and purpose-like in its aim, avoids the reckless waste of capacity which is entailed by prematurely limiting and specialising the faculties of the coming generation of workmen. It is entirely in accordance with the primary law that all sound teaching must proceed by well-reasoned steps from the known and familiar to the strange and unknown. The most homely subjects which surround the life of the child are the best suited for the first training of his faculties, and the work thus begun according to the course and order of Nature is that which can be most effectually developed in many various fields.

Such considerations as these are specially applicable to the present state of India. In many parts of it there are arts which have grown to perfection in the course of many generations, and the special faculties called forth by them have become hereditary and instinctive in a very high degree. We English have been blamed, and not without reason, for having degraded and perverted arts which we have rashly attempted to resuscitate and improve. But, as it appears to me, there is another side to this question. While, on the one hand, such industries as these do unquestionably maintain within their limits qualities of the highest order, and display an artistic

skill in the use both of form and of colour, unsurpassed and indeed rarely attained by the nations of the West, they have not, on the other hand, shown sufficient energy and power of expansion to avail themselves of the favorable conditions which a long reign of peace has given to the nations of India. Whether, speaking broadly, native industries have actually decayed and diminished since the early part of the century, is open to doubt, but assuredly they have not been able to supply the extended demand which the rapidly increasing wealth and population of the country has created. The markets have been open to them; they were in possession of them; the existing taste and customs of the country were all in their favour; yet still, relatively at all events, they have not held their own. It would be out of place in this brief notice to enter into discussion as to the comparative advantages of England and of India, but this general conclusion is of much practical importance. A very little thought on the subject will make it evident that it is not by mere servile imitation and direct competition that success can be attained. In the fair and intelligent rivalry to which Free Trade gives full scope each producer will use the best resources which are within his reach. Advantages of one kind are to be found here; other advantages of other kinds are to be found in India by those who have the knowledge and energy to utilise them. What each country has to do is, to make the best of those resources which it actually possesses; and of these India has many, and not among the least is that hereditary skill to which I have already referred. The problem before us, as regards technical training, is, how to put new life and recuperative energy into these art industries. In one sense, assuredly, we must be learners, not teachers: we must be students at least of the results produced; and train the perceptions of the pupils in our schools up to the highest standards which native art can afford. Yet those whose productions we admire, consummate artists though they be in their own work, are not consequently capable of becoming efficient teachers. Many an excellent craftsman is, as it were, inarticulate in his speech, and quite unable to impart the knowledge he possesses, or even to lend any aid to students in acquiring it for themselves. The "learned" Teacher thus looks down on the illiterate worker, who in turn regards him with profound scorn as a mere talker, incapable of carrying out his

talk into practice. It is to those of higher and more liberal culture that we must look to break down the barriers which prejudice and pride has set up between those who should regard each other with mutual respect and good will. In our best technical schools in England the professor is very careful not to ignore the susceptibilities of the craftsman, and if he venture upon manual work at all, accepts for it the exact and practical standard which the craftsman ordains. The pre-eminence of "the workman" in his own sphere is freely recognised, and he is all the more ready to perceive how much there may be in "theory" which has and may yet be brought into practice by the extension of special dexterity in new directions. Of one thing we may be very sure: no man ever attains to superior excellence in any craft or calling without "education" in some form, whether that be given by the more formal methods of the school, or by the exercise of unusual powers of observation and discrimination, informally but not the less strenuously applied. And in judging of popular schools, moreover, we must bear in mind that one of their chief objects is to raise up to a higher and an independent level the many of ordinary strength and capacity, and this end can be secured to a very great degree by judicious training in them, while we must trust to a well-graded system of education to open up a career to those who are able to profit by the higher range of instruction. Technical training, for the most part, numerically speaking, must be carried out in a more humble sphere, but it is work in which many can aid in all parts of the country, wherever any local industry can be revived or extended.

Not the least interesting part of the Commissioners' Report is the Special Report on Agriculture by Mr. H. M. Jenkins; and, widely as the conditions of industry differ in this country and in India generally, it contains many suggestions which are applicable to the latter. Here again the importance of suitable primary teaching is very forcibly insisted upon. I remember well some years ago discussing the state of primary education in rural Bengal with my excellent friend, the late Mr. Henry Woodrow, who was at that time Inspector of Schools there. He had found just the same difficulty as I had found in too many of the rural parishes in England. It was this. The children had never been led to associate the school work with the incidents of their daily

life. "The elephant has a long trunk" was a sentence repeated by rote there, as many such sentences are repeated in this country. But it never had struck them that this elephant and his trunk were real objects which they had constantly seen, and that these and many other objects were things to be observed, and which were very interesting and amusing to watch. Words did not represent facts in their minds, and as a natural consequence facts themselves were known in a very slipshod and imperfect manner. This habit of "taking notice" in the first instance, growing by gentle steps to a faculty of discriminating observation, is the very life and essence of primary training. It is quite true that we do not want to use such a long phrase as a "faculty of discriminating observation" in a country village school. The phrase indeed expresses in few words much that it would take pages to discuss and explain, but we want the sensible application of it in the way which the pupil can best test and understand. By far the greater part of the mistakes in common life arise from the unhappy fact that people have never been taught to see what is before their eyes. Physiologists tell us how objects are reflected on the retina of the eye; but the real process of seeing even in the lower animal is carried out in the brain, and Nature itself shows how this one of its functions comes first into activity. A healthy child is always ready to be amused by seeing things which in any way attract its attention, and the art of the true teacher is in no way more truly shown than by the success with which attention can be arrested and duly maintained without causing fatigue, and again and again drawn to familiar objects till the scholars not only know and recognise them, but know a good deal about them, and what their use and place is in the economy of the little world around them.

No pursuit affords more opportunities than that of agriculture for calling forth such capacities; but it does so happen that in many, indeed I fear in most parts of the world, the minds of the rural population are suffered to grow dull from want of appropriate stimulus. It ought not to be so, and Mr. Wm. Mather (whose short but suggestive report on the United States and Canada is in the second volume) tells us that there, the best and sharpest scholars come from country farms. But this is only where there are not only an adequate number of good schools, but parents are fully alive to the advantages

of training, and work with the teachers in carrying out the necessary work of early instruction. The technical teaching in the United States generally is described as eminently practical, but they do not fall into the too common but lamentable error of supposing that such teaching can be given by half-instructed professors, or, still worse, by those who have failed to make good their position in scholastic training in quite a different range. Here is an outline of the course given in colleges of which there is one at least in every State :

- 1st year : Algebra, drawing, trigonometry, botany, physiology, history, book-keeping.
 2nd „ Mechanics, surveying, field-work, physics and chemistry with laboratory work, literature and law.
 3rd „ Physics, blow-pipe, astronomy, meteorology, geology, mineralogy, mechanics. In agricultural course : drainage, forestry, qualities of soil, plant growth, breeding, fruit culture, ensilage, dairying, sheep husbandry, diseases of animals, and farm management.

To many colleges farms of 100 to 300 acres are attached, for instruction in practical agriculture.

It is, of course, not a large proportion of the whole population who can avail themselves to the full of such advantages ; but men so trained, as they go out into the world, raise the standard of efficiency throughout the length and breadth of the land.

One of the most useful of the practical institutions in aid of sound agriculture in England has been carried out entirely by private enterprise. Fifty years ago Mr. (now Sir) John Bennett Lawes began at Rothamsted by making small experiments in pots with different manures, following generally the leadings of De Saussure, who was then the great scientific authority on such matters. In 1840 and 1841 he extended his operations to field culture, and in 1843 formed an experimental station on a larger scale, associating with him for that purpose Dr. J. H. Gilbert, who has written a very interesting account of the whole experiment. In 1854-5 a new laboratory was built by public subscription, and presented to Sir John B. Lawes in the latter year. A large chemical and botanical staff are now systematically employed for the benefit of those

requiring analyses of soils or manures, and from small beginnings Rothamsted has become a great centre of agricultural instruction of all kinds, both in husbandry and in the rearing of stock, as well as for more scientific enquiries into the constitution of soils, the effect of rotation and "following" crops, the value of foods, and other matters which can only be determined by a long course of carefully-devised experiments.

Surely work in this spirit may be attempted with success by some of the men of wealth and influence in different parts of India. But mere money will do very little, unless much patient care and kindly thought are brought to bear upon the subject. The Government in India may fairly be expected to supply the means of higher training, and to support on behalf of the public a staff of thoroughly well qualified experts to whom reference may be made on, for example, questions requiring a high range of botanical or chemical knowledge. The work of the Geological Survey is well known theoretically; but might not the results be made more generally accessible to those locally interested in them? In India, and indeed in this country, no one can tell what treasures of knowledge lie hidden away in official store-houses. Multitudes of Reports, good, bad, and indifferent, are buried, as it were, in the bowels of the earth, and adventurous miners have sometimes been rewarded by the discovery of rare and wholly unexpected treasures. Even our libraries are not free from the same objection, and the recent activity shown among librarians has given rise to a new and much-needed profession of "Index makers," capable not merely of compiling a bare list of contents of the books coming before them, but of constructing a *catalogue raisonné* which shall afford some useful clues to the student.

It would be a most useful function, specially appropriate to a central Government office, not merely to collect the reports of industrial undertakings, including those of agriculture, and pile them one on the top of the other, but to go a step further, and to assort and to classify the subject matter, so far, at all events, that the task of investigation shall not be made absolutely hopeless to a student. At all events, if the buried dead of the past must needs remain buried, timely arrangements and selection may do much to preserve the good work of the present from sinking into like oblivion.

Still, the application of all the knowledge that can be thus

collected must rest with those who can bring to bear local zeal and influence upon the task. They alone can know the needs, the difficulties, the prejudices, of those who have to carry out in detail the industrial work which supports the life of the nation; and among these poor toilers themselves will be found much invaluable experience; some, it may be, distorted or obsolete, and unfitted for existing exigencies, but, not the less, often containing the germs of fruitful truths or appropriate practical warnings.

Technical training carried out, not in a sordid spirit, but in one at once liberal and practical, will do much to bridge over the painfully widening gulf between rich and poor, which is the great peril to which an advanced civilization is exposed. On its laborious and more utilitarian side it is akin to science, and will attain more and more fully to an appreciation of its methods. And on that brighter side, which adds so much to the happiness of life and the recreation of energy, we need surely be under no apprehension that a fuller study of Nature's processes will fail to enlarge the field of healthful enjoyment. From this point of view, training in the common arts of life is essentially *home* work and *heart* work, and this aspect of the question I venture to recommend to all those of my Indian fellow-countrymen who have enjoyed the advantages of a liberal education.

Two of the most popular cries of the day are for more Government aid, and also for less supervision and centralisation; and both of them contain a certain measure of truth, which, if regarded exclusively, will lead, as all partial truths do, to the worst of abuses. "Liberal" State expenditure implies heavy taxation on the public at large, and the duty rests upon the Government of determining, in the first place, how far the objects desired are of so general a nature as to justify an increase of the public burdens; and, in the second place, to take care that the funds so raised are not wasted upon crudely devised crotchets, or frittered away by incompetent management. Lax supervision is a premium upon bad work, and bad work supported by State aid is one of the most formidable obstacles to genuine enterprise, which must be built up, for the most part from small beginnings, upon the results of well-tested experience. The application of sound knowledge in detail can only be made by local intelligence and enthusiasm, and upon the local responsibility either of

local authorities who are able and willing to undertake it, or of individuals who, in the existing state of society, may be better able from their position and influence to carry out that work which is best suited to their surroundings. Without this vivifying safeguard, State grants will surely become the prey of self-seeking jobbers, and an encouragement to abuses and demoralisation of the most pernicious kind. The extent to which individual influence and local authorities can second and carry out beneficent work which the State requires, is the true measure of the validity of the elements of prosperity which the country contains. Undue State aid accorded in detail will, even at the very best, keep the people in a state of social and political childhood. True freedom must be developed from below, and based on the sufficiency of local institutions to carry out local affairs in forms compatible with the interests of the country at large.

ROWLAND HAMILTON.

HISTORICAL SUGGESTIONS IN THE ANCIENT HINDU EPIC, THE *MAHÁBHÁRATA*.

(Continued from page 360.)

After Krishna, under some one of his names, has been frequently mentioned, the following account of his incarnation is given: "To favour the worlds, the illustrious Divinity who receives the adoration of the world, Vishnu, incarnated himself in Devaki (the divine one), and became the son of Vasudeva; he who is without beginning or end, the God, creator of the world, the Imperishable, the Chief of beings, the universal soul, Nature, the All-power, the principle of life, the creator of all, he whose essence is goodness, the Immortal, the Infinite one, the Swan, the adorable Naráyana, he who nourishes all, who is not born; he willed, for the increase of virtue, to be born in the race of men."

It has been asserted that Krishna's adoration only came into vogue at about the 8th century of our era. Doubtless at about that time certain aspects of his present worship became prominent; but there can be little doubt that the Hari (his usual name in the *Mahábhárata*) is the Herakles described by Megasthenes as adored in Krishna's first city of Mathura, on the Jumna, in the 3rd century B.C.

This poem contains allusions to, accounts of, and forms of adoration addressed to Hari or Krishna throughout, and it is evidently based upon more ancient legends and popular belief. It seems that even if it were ascribed to a late period, such as the 8th century of our era, the Krishna worship indicated in it must still be old. If we can suppose that the author absolutely ignored the vast and settled system of Buddhism, and that his imagination completely carried him into the past, still would the manner in which Krishna is introduced suggest a religion of many centuries duration. Milton was inspired to his *Paradise Lost* in the 17th century after the time of Christ. It is difficult to believe that the author or authors of the *Mahābhārata* could have been inspired to indite it, except after the lapse of some such period, since divine attributes were claimed by, or attributed to, this remarkable prince. If the civilisation depicted in the *Mahābhārata* is to be assigned to the period of Charlemagne in Europe, we must recognise the fact that while the northern nations of Europe were little removed from barbarism, and while the Roman Empire was declining, Hindustan contained a chivalric, elegant, and deeply religious civilisation; supposing we admit that the poet of the *Mahābhārata* was inspired by the times in which he lived, allowing for poetical license and exaggeration. Of this period in the Roman Empire, Gibbon remarks: "At every step, as we sink deeper in the decline and fall of the eastern empire, the annals of each succeeding reign would impose a more ungrateful and melancholy task." But, as I have observed, the evidence seems strongly to indicate that the *Mahābhārata* had been indited before the period of Buddhist supremacy throughout India (*i.e.*, from the time of Ashoka, assigned by modern scholarship to about the 3rd century B.C., to about the 8th or 10th century A.D.) It certainly could not have been written since the Mohammedan invasions of the 11th century of our era.

It seems undoubtedly to show that interesting and important prototypes of Christian doctrines were in existence in Bhārata, or Arya varta (*i.e.*, the land of the noble or cultivating race). Essentially the religious conceptions in the Krishna religion seem to be connected with the Christianity of mediævalism. What sentiments could have been more in accordance with the professions of chivalry than these? 'Defeat is no better than death. The duty of the warrior is to seek victory or death in battle. Death has many advantages over the incurring of reproach.' Krishna, however, endeavours to act as mediator between the contending princes. It is frequently asserted in this work that the true Brahminhood depends upon the spirit of the Brahmin's deeds and life, not upon his mere hereditary

association with the Order. But care is continually taken to inculcate the propriety of supporting the Brahmins. At all great ceremonies accounts are given of vast numbers of presents bestowed upon them—golden pieces, cattle, fruits, cars adorned with gold, &c., &c. It must be allowed that our modern priest-hoods have by no means neglected to secure for themselves, as corporations or individuals, their fully due proportion of the wealth of the communities with which they are connected. In this great poem of our darker complexioned Aryan cousins, as science now acknowledges the Aryan Hindus to be, it is not that merely a few gems are to be extracted from it, of high religious feelings, pithy wisdom, or rare poetical descriptions, suggesting long culture. On the contrary, earnest devotional addresses, perfectly suitable to a modern pulpit, worldly-wise apothegms, accounts of the magnificence, taste, and luxuries of life, and of carefully-considered political and social economics, abound in its pages. Constantly the apparent polytheism is declared to express the attributes or aspects of one eternal, omnipresent, and omniscient supreme Spirit, who has been incarnated upon earth in many forms, but especially and entirely in the prince of many appellations, now generally known as Krishna.

The enthusiastic love of the beauties of Nature is ever apparent, whether exulting in the grandeur of mountains, the loveliness of sylvan scenes, the beauty of the flowers, which in India glow in gorgeous tints on forest trees, in the delight of gardens, and the tranquil charms of waters, adorned with the blue and crimson lotus, &c. Surely this love of the beauties of Nature must betoken an absolutely refined civilisation. There are eccentric legends in it, but they relate to the remote past. Krishna is first introduced into the work under the following circumstances: The hand of a princess is offered to any noble who can win her in competition of feats of arms, at a species of tournament. Hither, it is stated, come kings and sons of kings, and admirable young men of various countries—students in the Veda, firm in their vows—also poets, actors, athletes, &c. The virtuous princes, who are associated with Krishna, come in the disguise of Brahminical students. The banished duke and his followers, in Shakespeare's *As You Like It*, are somewhat suggested by the story of their banishment from their heritage. As they make their way towards this tournament it is related that they read the Vedas. Outside the city grand preparations are made. Pavilions are raised, with porticoes, arcades, and staircases. They are adorned with elegant cars and commodious seats. They are perfumed with aloes and carpets, couches, and with wreaths of flowers. After diversions of sandal, and decorated dancers, &c., on the sixteenth day of sons of comedians and

elaborately apparelled, descends into the arena to display herself. Then the musical instruments are silenced, and it is solemnly proclaimed that whoever draws a certain bow of tremendous strength, and shoots five arrows in succession through a ring, shall have the princess to wife, provided his qualifications in respect to manly vigour, beauty, and birth are satisfactory. The disguised princes are victorious, much to the delight of the Brahmins present, and to the disgust of the aristocratic warriors, who exclaim that they are not qualified to win the prize. Then Krishna informs the assembled kings that the princess has been legally won, and that the supposed Brahmins are of the warrior class. The general descriptions of the poem, suggest so much luxury and refinement that it seems reasonable to refer this winning of the hand of the princess by feats of arms to a legend of an earlier age. At all events, her marriage to the five princes indicates an ancient legend. As has been observed, however, they are all virtually incarnations of Indra, so may be considered one. This Princess Krishnâ, or Draupadî, is related, in a former existence, to have been unable to get a husband, notwithstanding her beauty and charms, on account of sins in another previous existence. As in those ancient days—unlike our own modern over-populated times, at all events in England—it was considered disgraceful to remain single, she prayed earnestly for a husband. A voice from heaven informed her that she must continue in single bliss during this transmigration, on account of her sins in a former life, but that in the next transmigration she should have five husbands. "But," she urged, "I do not want five; I only want one husband." It was answered that she had prayed earnestly, in five separate supplications, for a spouse. Each prayer had been separately answered, and she must wed the five. Accordingly she became this Princess Krishnâ, or Draupadî, and wedded the five Pandâ princes, of whom the chief was Yudishthera, 'Firm in battle,' as has been said.

According to this *Mahâbhârata* (i.e., "great supporter") epic, the happiness of the earth had been ruined by demons entering into the forms of men and animals. The personified earth, heavily oppressed by the weight of her burden, and tormented by fear, implores succour of the God who is the parent of all creatures. She sees Brahmâ, surrounded by divine beings, sages, heavenly nymphs, &c., and prays for deliverance. Brahmâ orders the deities to become incarnate in the world, to contend against the demons. But first they go to the higher heaven of Narâyana, or Vishnu, 'to him of the yellow robe, the brilliant one with the charming eyes,' and Indra, chief of the heavenly host, says to him: 'Be incarnate

thyself in a portion of thy substance.' In concert with the divine beings, Indra makes arrangements with Naráyana for the descent upon earth. Vasudeva, the father of Krishna, is himself alleged to be a portion of the immortal God of gods. Baladeva, the brother of Krishna, is also an incarnation of Vishnu, considered as Sesa, the serpent, type of eternity. Krishna's infancy; his escape from the reigning tyrant, who has been informed that a child will be born of Krishna's mother for his destruction; his youthful days amongst the pastoral folk; these stories are not related till the end of the *Mahābhārata*, in the book called the *Harivansa*. But that the story of his pastoral life is not a later invention is shown by the epithet, 'Lover of the Shepherdesses,' being applied to him.

Under the name Cesava he is thus addressed by the Sage Vyāsa, the reputed author of the poem, who is supposed to have been his contemporary: 'Thou art the beginning and the end of all things; thou art the treasure of penitences, the eternal sacrifice. Thou art Hari, Brahma, the sun and moon, time, the earth, the cardinal points, the creator and grandest of men. Thou art the supreme way. Thou destroyest the demons by hundreds. There exists in thee neither anger, nor envy, nor falsehood, nor cruelty. At the end of an age of the world thou drawest all beings into thyself, and thou then becomest this world. In the first creation of beings thou wast the only patriarch; thou wast the creator of all worlds. Thou art the All-pervader, thou art the sacrifice, the sacrificer and the victim; patience and truth art thou. Thou art the sacrifice, which is truth. Thou art the eternal, the way on which the holy march, soul of beings, without cessation in action. The constellations, the worlds, and the guardians of words, all exist in thee; thou art the Lord of all beings, of those who are divine, and of those who are born of Manu.'

The first Manu is the first self-existent man-type. The seventh Manu is the Indian Noah, who constructs an ark, and Krishna becomes incarnate as a fish to guide it into safety. He does not take pairs of all the animals into the ark, but only the seeds of created things. Manu comes from the Sanscrit word *man*, to think; man properly meaning the thinking being.

The religion of the *Mahābhārata* is a spiritual pantheism, in which the one Spirit is conceived as peopling heaven under various personifications, and becoming incarnate upon earth in many forms, of which that of Krishna, or Hari, is the most perfect manifestation of the divine. Through complete faith in him, release from the recurring round of transmigrations in this and other worlds can be attained, and the eternal bliss be reached, in union with the divine spirit of All.

Krishna, in his warlike character, seems to have been naturally adored by the warriors of North-Western India, and under corresponding forms by the old warlike nations or tribes of Europe. Phœbus, Apollo and the old Scandinavian deities seem in affinity. The peaceful Buddhistic doctrines obtained a hold of the milder races of Eastern Hindustan, and they seem to have gained a footing for a time on the shores of the Mediterranean, in the placid precepts of Pythagoreanism, developing into Platonism, and eventually displaced by Christianity.

In one passage in the *Mahābhārata* Krishna, as Vishnu, is said to have been also Kapila. Now Kapila is the founder of one of the six great Hindu systems of philosophy which were founded after the period of the compilation of the hymns of the Vedas. Professor Weber remarks, in his *History of Sanscrit Literature*, that Kapila, the originator of the Sankhya system of philosophy, appears to be raised to divine dignity itself. He became regarded as an incarnation of Vishnu, or Narāyana. Kapila is also closely associated with Buddhism, the legends of which uniformly speak of him as long anterior to Buddha. Krishna and Buddha are, therefore, both connected with the same philosophical system, which is undeniably to be assigned to a period previous to the epoch of Gautama Buddha, or Sakya Muni, placed by modern scholarship at about the 5th century B.C.

* In conclusion; the statement of a holy Sage in the *Mahābhārata*, concerning the last period of this age of the world, shall be given. 'Truth,' he says, 'will be lost, the classes intermingled, atheists will abound, and Brahmins will become merely disputatious. Husbands and wives, fathers and sons, will be at enmity. Darkness, sin, misery, and shortened lives will ensue. The lower classes will preach, and the Brahmins become their disciples. The temples will be in ruins, wars will prevail, rains will become overwhelming, and the constellations will lose their brilliance. At length fire will consume everything; no asylum will remain, and only groans be heard.'

'On the ruins of the world will come the new age. Brahmins will again be recognised as the first of classes. Then will arise the Brahmin Kalki, surnamed 'The glory of the All-Pervading One,' surpassing in beauty, energy, and intelligence. From his thought will be born champions of war, warriors, and weapons. He will be king, victorious in virtue, monarch of the entire world; and he shall bring the celestial blessings upon earth. He will immolate the barbarians, and prepare the great sacrifice of the horse, in token of universal dominion. Then the children

of Manu, by his example, will obtain happiness, and the destruction of robbers will insure tranquillity. Vice will be exterminated, and virtue will return. Temples to the deities and holy hermitages will be revived, and the faithful will replace heretics.' This, it may again be urged, would seem to suggest a period when Buddhistic ideas were gaining ground, antagonistic to Brahminical supremacy; but previously to the time of Ashoka, usually assigned to about the 3rd century B.C., when Buddhism seems virtually to have become a State religion, under his patronage.

CHARLES J. STONE, F.R.S.L., F.R. Hist. Soc.

REVIEW.

A LITTLE SKETCH-BOOK; OR, LITERARY JOTTINGS. By SYUD ABDUR RAHMAN, Esq., Barrister-at-Law. Madras, 1883.

THE above volume is a collection of short papers on various subjects, several of which have appeared in this *Journal*. The writer has reprinted them with the view of supplying information to his countrymen in regard to matters of English interest. The description of his voyage from Calcutta to Southampton, and of his arrival in London, will doubtless help many to comprehend the details of the strange month which transports the Indian to Western lands, and will tend to allay the dread which young students must feel in encountering so much that is unknown to their previous experience. His narrative gives naturally and simply the impressions of a young Mahomedan on his first sea-voyage, and his first visit to European shores. Following this are four good descriptions of excursions (made in connection with the National Indian Association) to the Tower of London, Woolwich Arsenal, Windsor Castle, and Hatfield House. The sketch of the life of the great Akbar is interesting; and in the suggestion as to the establishment of *Pice Savings Banks* in India, an important and practical subject is touched upon. It would have been well if Mr. Syud Abdur Rahman had omitted the speeches made by others than himself at the reception given to him on his return home from England by his Mahomedan friends. These would have more suitably appeared elsewhere

than in a work of his own. The book is dedicated to the memory of the author's "most dear and valued friend," the late Raees Uddin Ahmed, to whom he was indebted for much kindness on his arrival as a stranger in England. We have pleasure in recording that Mr. Syud Abdur Rahman followed the example of his friend, by showing himself always ready during his stay here to give good-natured help and advice to new comers, and to start them with preliminary information as to English ways and habits.

A VISIT TO WINDSOR CASTLE.

The numerous readers of this *Journal* in India may be pleased to read an account of Windsor Castle, the residence of the Royal Family of England. It will be the more interesting, as a member of the Royal Family is at present sojourning in India. I will not attempt to give an historical account of the Castle, because space is limited, and the history will be out of place here. I will therefore mention such things as we saw on a late visit, which included more than visitors generally see. Before commencing I take it for granted that the objects of the National Indian Association are known to all Indians in India. Besides bringing English and Indian people in contact in England, the Association is one of the means through the medium of which Indians resident in England begin to take interest in English institutions. Parties are from time to time formed, and these parties visit places of interest. The writer of this article had the good fortune to join such a party which visited Windsor Castle on the 9th of June last. The party consisted of English ladies and gentlemen, and Indians from various parts of India at present staying in England. The party left Paddington Station for Windsor at half-past ten in the morning. Windsor is about 20 miles from London. Situated on a rising ground, surrounded by trees, the river Thames flowing gently by in the distance, Windsor Castle presents an aspect which is truly delightful to the eye. To the student of English History the building is full of interest, full of meaning. With pleasure, therefore, did we enter the Castle, and great was the anxiety to see the interior.

The State Apartments, a short description of which I give here, are open to the public on certain days, when the Queen and Court are absent. We were conducted first to the Queen's Audience

Chamber. The painting on the ceiling of this room is done by Antonio Verrio, a Neapolitan artist, invited to England by King Charles II. In this chamber the painter has represented Queen Catherine as Britannia proceeding towards the Temple of Virtue in a car drawn by swans, and accompanied by Ceres and many other heathen deities. On the walls are seen specimens of the Gobelin tapestry, representing a portion of the history of Esther. Over the door leading to the Queen's Audience Chamber is a whole-length portrait of Mary Queen of Scots, in a mourning-habit, with a crucifix in her right hand and breviary in the other. From this chamber we passed to the Queen's Presence Chamber. The ceiling is painted by Verrio, and in it he has again introduced Catherine of Braganza, Queen of King Charles II., as the principal figure. The Queen is made to sit under a canopy of Time, attended by zephyrs. Below this group Justice is chasing away Sedition, Envy, and other evil persons. On the walls of this chamber there is a continuation of the history of Esther and Mordecai. After inspecting the other paintings, we entered the Guard Chamber, which contains a collection of arms and armour very methodically arranged. At the south end of the room is a portion of the foremast of the ship *Victory*, completely perforated by a cannon ball at the battle of Trafalgar. There is also in this chamber the Shield which Francis I., King of France, presented to Henry VIII., at their meeting on the "field of the cloth of gold." Some objects which deserve notice in this room are a bar-shot, which killed eight persons on board the *Victory* at the battle of Trafalgar; two field-pieces of Indian manufacture taken by Lord Hardinge from the Sikhs; muskets and round shot from Inkerman and trophies from Zululand. Then comes St. George's Hall. This is a large apartment, and is interesting, being connected with the Order of the Garter and the chivalry of England. Its walls are decorated with the portraits of the sovereigns from James I. to George IV. From this apartment we went to the Grand Reception Room. This is a large room. On its wall is represented the story of Jason and Medea. Then comes the Waterloo Chamber. This is a magnificent room, and was built by Sir Jeffrey Wyatville. Being situated between the other apartments, it is lighted from above. In this room many of the State banquets are given. It contains many of the works of art which Sir Thomas Lawrence painted for King George IV., consisting of the portraits of the European sovereigns of those times, as well as many of the eminent statesmen and warriors who took an active part in the events of 1813, 1814, 1815, and by whose exertions the peace of Europe was established. Then follows the Grand Vestibule. This is a

lofty apartment lighted from above. At the north end is a fine statue of the present Queen, with her favourite dog "Sharpe." The other apartments are the State Ante-room, the Zuccarrelli Room, and the Vandyke Room.

We then saw several other apartments which are not generally shown to visitors. In some of these are the portraits of many members of the Royal Family of England, whose names are familiar through English history and in the present time. Among these portraits may be mentioned those of the present Queen of England when Her Majesty was very young, the Prince of Wales, and the Princess of Wales. But of all the paintings the most interesting is that which represents the Coronation Ceremony of our Queen-Empress. We were shown Her Majesty's dining-room, drawing-room, and adjoining these apartments is the little chapel where the Queen attends Divine service on Sundays. I was particularly pleased to see Her Majesty's pew. From some of these apartments the visitor has a nice view of the Long Walk, which is three miles long. It has fine trees on each side, and the number of the elms is said to be 1,600.

We also visited later the Royal Mews. Attendants conduct the visitors through the Royal stables and coach-houses, showing the beautiful grey and bay carriage and saddle-horses used by Her Majesty and the Royal Family; also the landaus, phaetons, and the baby-carriages of the Royal Family. Some of the visitors then proceeded to the Model Farm of the late Prince Consort. There are three of these, the principal of which is the Shaw Farm. At this Her Majesty's prize cattle are bred and fattened.

After lunch at the White Hart Hotel the party broke up, and some proceeded to Virginia Water. This is a beautiful lake, and the scenery here is the most enchanting there is. The visitor passes by the water-side, and on the opposite shore is seen the Royal Fishing Temple; this was rebuilt by Her Majesty. Near this are the ruins—columns, altars, and other things of marble, collected by George IV. At the end of the lake are seats placed, from which the surroundings of the lake can be very well seen. At the summit of the hill in the woods known as Shrubb's Hill is Fort Belvedere, from which salutes of 21 guns are fired on Royal birthdays. Then the visitor comes to the Cascade, which is a beautiful retreat. The rocks comprising these are supposed to be Druid stones.

We then returned to London, very much pleased with what we had seen; and we shall always remember this pleasant visit to Windsor.

ONE OF THE PARTY.

SHORNALATA : A TALE OF HINDU LIFE.

BY TARAK NATH GANGULI.

*Translated for this Journal by Mrs. J. B. KNIGHT.**(Continued from page 322.)**(All rights in this translation remain with the author of the tale.)*

[For the assistance of the reader the names of the principal characters in the following chapters are subjoined.]

Sasibhusan, the elder brother.

Pramada, his wife.

Bipin, their son.

Kamini, their daughter.

Bidhubhusan, the younger brother.

Gopal, his son.

Shyama, the female servant.

Nilkamal, a strolling fiddler.

Bipradas Chakravarti, a rich resident of Burdwan.

Shornalata, his daughter.

Hem Chandra, his son.

CHAPTER XLII.

EVIL PRODUCES EVIL.

At the sight of the hall of worship in flames, Shashanka stood like a statue for some moments; then he rushed to the spot. The door of Shornalata's room stood open; the priest had left the padlock and key hanging, having forgotten, in his hurry, to fasten the door. Shorna also had perceived that the worship-hall was on fire, and that a neighbouring room had also been caught by the flames. She was much alarmed. People were fleeing on all sides amid screams and confusion. Each intent on self-preservation, no one had time to look after another. Shorna did not stop to think what she would do when once she was out of the house. She made for the public entrance; but seeing the crowd, went to the private door, which was not well lighted. In going she stumbled several times; but, in comparison with the fear of losing her life, what was a bruise or two? The door being open, she slipped through, and rejoiced to find herself free from Shashanka and his prison. She stood inhaling fresh life from the outer air; but a crowd gathering there also, she ran on in front. No one observed which way Shornalata went, nor impeded her progress. She felt certain that, go where she might, she would find refuge from Shashanka. At the junction of two roads, after a little hesitation she took the road leading to the left. Presently some one, pulling at her dress from behind, said, "Where are you going?" Screaming with fear, Shornalata looked and saw a woman, which gave her some courage. The woman halted beside her, and Shorna saw that it was a servant from Shashanka's house. Thinking the

woman had come to seize her, Shorna cried out, "Let me alone. I will not go. If you don't let me go, I will scream."

"What do you fear? I am not come to catch you. I also am flying. I have compassed the destruction of Shashanka."

Therewith she showed a box, at sight of which Shorna believed her, and asked, "Which way are you going?"

"We must not take the road to the station; we will cross the river. I have an aunt there, to whom we will go for the night. To-morrow we will see what next to do."

Agreeing to this proposal, Shorna followed the woman through bye-lanes to the river-side; but ill-luck seemed to dog the steps of Shorna wherever she went. There was no boat, and they had long to wait ere they could get across. Once over the river, she heaved a deep sigh, saying, "Now I am safe."

"There is no more fear for you; but I am in trouble."

"Why have you done this? Why did you steal anything?"

"Why should I not steal? I have done well. Is there such another villain as he is? He has grown rich by robbing others; now I have robbed him."

"How did you manage it?"

"I knew in what chest Shashanka kept his money. I have often tried to take some; but never got the chance. To-day, when he went into your room, he left the key in the lock. Then I thought of taking it; but had no hope of succeeding. When the worship-hall took fire he ran, leaving the key in the lock. Then I thought, 'Now is the time. If I don't take it now I never shall.' So I opened the chest, took out this box, and came off. You were ahead of me. When you went to the public gate, I went to the private one, opened it and came out. That is how you found the door open. When I saw what a crowd there was, I returned. I called you often; but you did not hear. When you turned to the north, I saw you would not come back; so I pulled your *safi*. You thought I was come to catch you;" and the servant laughed aloud.

"I really believed you were come to seize me."

"There is my aunt's home, where we will spend the night."

"How shall I get to Calcutta to-morrow? I shall have to cross again to go by train. Who will go with me?"

"Leave the work of to-morrow till to-morrow. For to-day let us get on." Both went to the aunt's house.

It has been said that Shashanka first saw the fire from the room in which Shornalata was locked up. Just before that, Shashanka had gone into the room next to the worship-hall, and placed the money given by Haridas in a drawer of the *taktaposh*. It being February, and everything very dry, the houses on each side were soon caught by the flame. Haridas

stood in the assembly, still holding the hands of the bridegroom and of the officiating priest, believing that when the fire should be extinguished the ceremony would proceed. On coming outside, Shashanka perceived that the room where he kept his money was in flames. He went in, flung off the covering of the *taktaposh*, and searched in his belt for the key of the drawer; but he found it not. What affliction! He ran to the room where Shornalata had been imprisoned, and saw the padlock there, but no key. Striking his forehead, he cried, "I am ruined!" and set off like a madman for an axe. But nothing is to be found when wanted. After long search he found one, and hastened to the worship-hall, which he saw he could still enter. As he did so, Haridas, who had come after him, seized his garment from behind, saying, "Where is the bride? Let us go to another house to perform the marriage." Making no reply in words, Shashanka raised his axe over the head of Haridas, who fled in affright. The priest began to force open the drawer of the *taktaposh*; but being made of *sal* wood, it did not yield easily. Above his head the flames were dancing in the breeze. He struck the *taktaposh* a frightful blow; the house trembled beneath it; and a beam, breaking from the roof, descended on the back of Shashanka, who fell upon the *taktaposh*. The axe entered his breast, from which the blood welled in streams; while his garments caught fire from the beams. "Save me, save me!" he wailed forth. "Drag me out from here." The people outside stared in each other's faces. Again he cried, "Save me, and I will give you all I have." But the house was falling; no one had courage to enter it. With a loud crash the roof fell in, burying Shashanka in the ruins. The last chapter of his life was finished.

Convinced at last that the marriage would not take place, Haridas went home. His son, after walking about restlessly, talking with his companions in English, followed his father, having gained only ridicule.

CHAPTER XLIII.

THE END APPROACHES.

On the morning after the night when Pramada's boat sank in the river, she sent news of the fact to the police-station. The Head Constable went to the Daroga to consult what was to be done, but the Daroga was still insensible; he breathed heavily, his eyes were closed, he gave no answer when spoken to, his limbs were powerless. When Romesh Babu was questioned, he replied that he knew nothing of the matter; he had

been with the watchmen at the private door, and that after changing the watchmen in the early morning he had found the Daroga insensible, and heard that some of the inmates had left the house. Afterwards he had learned that their boat was sunk. The Head Constable and Romesh Babu together examined the feet of the Daroga; perhaps a snake had bitten them, but they found no sign of it; there was no mark on his body, only an old one on his forehead. Suddenly Romesh, approaching his head close to that of the Daroga, discovered that his breath smelt of liquor. He called to the Head Constable, saying, "Jemadar Sahib, I fancy the Daroga's breath smells of liquor; will you just come and see?" The Head Constable, complying with this suggestion, said, "Romesh, you are right."

"Do we not belong to the police? How many tricks people play!"

"What is to be done now? Let us throw some water over his head, that people may not discover it; he will come round."

"Do you think that will be wise, sir? If he dies we shall suffer. I think we should give the news to the Deputy-Magistrate Babu."

"Then the blame will fall on the Daroga Babu's servants."

"Let those who are in fault bear the blame; why should we bear it?"

Romesh's face was black as ink, his lips trembled, but the Head Constable was not thus affected. At length they resolved it would be right to inform the Deputy-Magistrate. They brought men, and were about raising the Daroga, when they found a bottle lying by his side. Smelling at it, Romesh said, "This bottle must have contained the liquor; what shall we do with it, throw it away?"

"Is that the proper thing to do? The bottle must be sent with the report. See if there is anything in it."

With trembling fingers Romesh turned the bottle up; a small drop of black liquid fell out. He said, "There is nothing in it."

"That which fell out, why did you throw it away? Are you a policeman, and do you do such a green thing as that? Give the bottle to me."

In handing the bottle Romesh's hands shook violently. The Head Constable looked at him in astonishment. To account for his state, Romesh, moistening his lips with his tongue, said, "I am all trembling from want of sleep last night. When I have bathed and slept I shall be all right." Then he perceived that the Head Constable was not satisfied, that some suspicion had arisen in his mind. Romesh turned his face away. The Head Constable took the Daroga, and, laying him down in the room

of the Deputy-Magistrate, placed the bottle near him. The Deputy sent both to Krishnagar with a pass, and entrusted to the Head Constable the task of looking into the boat matter.

The Head Constable, Romesh and some other constables went to the place where the boat had gone down, and desired the boatmen to bring up the things it had contained. They produced only apparel. The Jemadar then called other men, and had the boat raised from the bottom of the river; still they did not find Pramada's box. Finally the Head Constable went to Sasibhusan's house to discover in what manner Pramada and her mother had been suffered to escape from it. On the road he asked Romesh what he knew about it. Romesh knew nothing. He was on watch at the private door; no one had gone out thence. Then the Head Constable asked Pramada's mother, "Who let you out of the house last night?"

"He who set a watch on my son-in-law's house."

"What was his name?"

"He has a nice name. He who came to the house and had so much affection for my son, and afterwards brought destruction upon him, taking all the money, and then bringing about his imprisonment."

"Would you recognise him if you saw him?"

"Why not?"

"Why did he ruin Gadadhar and take money from him?"

"Gadadhar and he opened someone's letters and took the money from them. My son was not in fault; he was taught by that policeman. Then when the theft was discovered he came and demanded Rs. 100 to hold his tongue. What could we do? We are poor people. Where could we find the money? My son-in-law is rich, but that does not make me rich. I pledged the few ornaments I had to my daughter, and obtained the money; nevertheless the next day that policeman came with the Daroga and arrested Gadadhar." Gadadhar's mother had proceeded thus far, when Romesh, having finished his business, came up. At the sight of him the mother exclaimed, "Policeman, it was in vain that I gave you that money; and now see, what Pramada had is also gone; all that was left is gone."

The Head Constable again asked, "To whom did you give the money?"

The mother pointed with her finger to Romesh. Romesh, feigning astonishment, said, "What! you gave money to me!"

"Yes, to you."

"No; you have forgotten."

"Why do you deny it falsely? Do you think I don't know you? Once you came and took Rs. 100 from Gadadhar, and yesterday my daughter gave you Rs. 25. I know you very well,

why should I not? It is not once or twice only that I have seen you. How intimate you were with Gadadhar; you used to come daily to our house."

Romesh was unable to say a word, and the Head Constable was no longer doubtful. He at once gave orders for the arrest of Romesh, who, however, made a protest, saying, "You will see, sir, that I am innocent; you will repent of this! I am not a husbandman; I belong to the police."

"You belong to the police? Do not I also belong to the police?" With these words the Head Constable gave a written order to two other policemen, and sent them off in charge of Romesh. Dinobandhu Babu (the Daroga) arose after three days' sleep. It required the utmost care from the doctor to prevent the sleep from becoming fatal. When awake he related to the Magistrate what had occurred; while the doctor after examining the bottle said that it had contained spirit and opium. Ramdhan (the spirit-seller) was arrested, but, proving his innocence, was released. He had not mixed anything with the spirit, then who had done so? While this was going on, a druggist living near Sasibhusan's house said, "Romesh Babu came one night for some laudanum and spirit to cure an illness he was suffering from. He did not pay cash, so it is written in the book against his name." When this was known information was given to the police, and three days afterwards he was summoned to Krishnagar as a witness. He stated in court that on such a night Romesh Babu came for sixpennyworth of laudanum.

A comparison of dates showed that on the same night the Daroga had become senseless. Romesh's burthen was complete, all his sins were revealed. Theft, the taking of a bribe, the release of Pramada and her mother, and the drugging of the Daroga, putting his life in peril. Confronted by such an accumulation of charges, Romesh, policeman as he was, had nothing to say. The Judge asked, "Have you any defence?" But Romesh remained silent, with downcast face. He was found guilty on all the charges, and sentenced to transportation for life.

CHAPTER XLIV.

In great mental suffering Gopal passed the night; it seemed as if it would never end. Each hour seemed like three. Night is said to soothe, but whom does she soothe? Not him who is distressed in mind. Not the patient on his bed. Not the poor and suffering. Their trouble is increased by night. They who lie on beds of down, constantly fanned by servants, can rest. Why not? At length the sun appeared in the east. The

station-master, opening his windows, appeared like another sun.

The Railway Babus perform their official duties in uniform and embroidered slippers. The telegraph began to work; the bell rang to summon passengers to take their tickets; a train came puffing in. The second bell rang, the flag was waved, the station-master called out, "All right!" Then, making the earth tremble, the iron horse resumed its journey. Thus several trains passed. Gopal was exhausted with anxiety. In one night he had come to look as though he had endured several days' fasting. At last ten struck. Then the station-master, extracting from Gopal the history of the matter, ordered his release. Gopal took the train arriving at Serampur at one o'clock. How many anxieties filled his mind! Now he thought, "Shornalata is plunged into a sea of sorrow;" then he fancied she would kill herself. Frightful thought! "If she has done so, the blame is mine. Why did I sleep? If she is married, or if she has killed herself, there will be no expiation for my sin."

The iron horse arrived in due course. Gopal gave up his ticket and got out of the station. Enquiring for the house of Shashanka, he reached it after much delay; arrived to see nothing of the house but a heap of ashes surrounded by the police. Gopal's heart beat thickly, his feet were powerless, his head swam. He thought Shorna had really destroyed herself. Oppressed by this thought, he could not move; he sat in the road, his hands pressed to his head. A constable came up, but Gopal had not the courage to ask from him the facts.

After a time he strengthened himself to return to the ruins, and said gently to the Inspector, "Will you tell me, sir, what has happened here, what you are looking after?"

The Inspector glancing at Gopal saw he was in great trouble, and answered, "The master of this house, Shashanka Smritigiri, has been killed in the burning of this place. Are you a relation of his?"

Gopal, sighing deeply, said, "No, sir, I am no relation; but has nothing else happened? Has there not been a suicide?"

The Inspector, laughing, answered, "No, no; what has put that into your mind?"

"My sister was here. Shashanka had arranged to marry her by force. I was coming to fetch my sister, but I became senseless in the train, and was carried on to Bardwan. My sister wrote that if some one did not come to fetch her she would kill herself." As he spoke tears streamed from his eyes.

The Inspector comforted him, saying, "Fear not, your sister is in no danger; only Shashanka was killed. There is evidence that your sister fled just as the house took fire."

Gopal fainted with delight. The Inspector laid him on a bed, and sprinkled water on his face. When he recovered, the Inspector said, "Are you ill?"

"No."

"Have you had anything to eat?"

"Not since last night."

The Inspector brought food, but Gopal would not eat; he said, "Until I find my sister I cannot do so."

"If you have no strength, how can you seek for her? Eat, and then I will send some one with you."

Thus urged he eat, then begged the Inspector to give him a guide. Accompanied by a constable he visited every house, but found no Shorna. Striking his head, Gopal said, "Shorna must have killed herself, or else she was burned to death." Then taking leave of the constable, he went to the bank of the river and lay down on the ground. As he lay there some boatmen near him began to talk. One said, "Do you know anything of this? what is its value?" Another answered, "Its value? If you will go with me I'll give you as many as you like of those stones." A third said, "Whether it be valuable or not, the gold is." The second said, "This is gilt. Do rich people wear gold nowadays?"

"You think that rich people wear brass?" returned the first, "and that all the ornaments in your house are gold?"

"Are there not gold ornaments in my house? is that false? Rich people wear brass, and it is called gold; but if I were to wear gold coins round my neck, people would say they were brass."

The one who owned the gold and stone said, "Well, you need not make a disturbance. Give me the ornament. Whether it be gold or brass it is mine."

"I told you right, the value of this is great. If you don't believe me, let us ask the gentleman who is lying there."

All consenting to this, they went to Gopal, and placed a ring in his hand, saying, "Sir, will you tell us the value of this?"

Gopal sat up, then asked eagerly, "Where did you get this?" It seemed as if light flashed from his eyes. Before like one dead, now he was all life. The ornament was Shornalata's, and he recognised it. The boatmen, seeing his eagerness, were silent. The owner said, "Sir, I took two women across the river last night; they had no money, they gave me that instead."

Gopal sprang to his feet, "She is living! Where did they go?"

"To the house of the aunt of Shashanka's maid-servant."

"The value of this is more than Rs. 30, but if you will take me to that house I will give Rs. 5 in addition."

There was a general clamour. In the midst of it the owner of the ornament said, "They can't take you. I took the lady over, and will now take her husband." It is known only to the boatman why he imagined Gopal and Shorna to be husband and wife. Gopal went with him across the river; the man went with him a little way, then said, "That is the house; give me the money."

Gopal gave him the promised money, and went on. Presently he saw Shornalata and another woman. He ran quickly, calling out, "Shorna!" then, as Shorna did not come to him, he fell senseless to the ground.

CHAPTER XLV.

THE END.

When he recovered his senses Gopal found his head supported on Shorna's knee. She was fanning him with her left hand. Shashanka's servant stood by with a vessel of water. He asked where he was.

"You are with me, with Shorna. Are you not better?"

Then he remembered all, and after a silence said, "I am well," but he did not raise his head, and Shorna continued to fan him. At length he asked, "How did you come hither?"

"You can't hear that now. I will tell you later." Shorna went away, but presently came back and called him in. She had long left off calling him brother. Gopal had thought it was because of his poverty; but since his head had rested on her knee, another thought came to him. He looked into her heavenly eyes, and his delight was inexpressible. Obeying her call, he followed her into the house, and found she had provided food for him. As he ate, she related her story. She had never seen Gopal angry; but now, as she related the knavery of Shashanka, she was astonished to see him grind his teeth and strike his forehead, while his eyes became inflamed. As she finished, he said, "Now I do not regret Shashanka's death one atom." Shorna asked, "How was Shashanka's house burned?" Gopal bent his face as he answered, "I heard that it took fire while the cooking was going on." Then he told his own story. When Shornalata heard that, for fear of increasing Hem's illness, Gopal had kept from him Shorna's danger, and had himself gone to her rescue, the tears fell, and they flowed yet more swiftly when she heard of his journey to Bardwan, and imprisonment at the station.

That night neither of the two could sleep. In the morning they went with Shashanka's servant to the railway-station at

Barrackpore, thence to Sealda, and finally to Hem's house in Bakultola Street. Hem was now able to walk about. He was sitting in the verandah when the carriage containing the travellers came to the door. Gopal got out first. Hem grasped his hands, saying, "What had you to do at Bhowanipur, that you have been three days away?"

As Gopal was about to answer, Shashanka's maid stepped out. Hem said, "Who is this?" But the words were not out of his mouth when Shornalata followed. Yet more astonished, he asked, "Where does Shornalata come from? Come in, sister," and accompanied the weeping Shorna into the house.

On a day after this Hem and Gopal are seated together. Hem is now quite himself. Gopal's countenance is not the same as formerly. Hem is delighted to have discovered after so long a time the reason for this. He perceives that the attachment between Gopal and Shornalata is mutual, and that marriage will secure their happiness. He says with a smile, "Gopal, I have something to say to you."

"What is it?"

"Do you remember what was spoken of last Puja?"

"I remember."

"That one day as we sat in the hall my father came in and began speaking of Shornalata's marriage. Do you recollect?"

"Yes."

"That you immediately got up, and my father said there was no need for you to go away; that I said you were not well, and had better go; that with a frown you went out. Do you remember that?"

With a look of shame Gopal answered, "I remember."

"Do you know why I was anxious for you to leave the room?"

"I am not able to say."

"You can, but you will not. Listen! I sent you away because I wished to propose your marriage with Shornalata. I saw you frown, but made no remark."

Gopal blushed, and kept his eyes on the ground.

"My father made one objection to you, that you are not rich. Do not be angry, Gopal; these are not my words, but my father's. That was his one objection. Had he lived, I should by this time have obtained his consent. On account of his death your marriage has been delayed. Now I propose that, if there be no objection, you write and ask your father to come, and that you marry Shorna."

Gopal could not speak for emotion; he tried, but failed. Hem said, "You need not speak; I understand all about it. Now write to your father."

Gopal and Shornalata were married. Sasibhusan's trial was over. Because of his confession he was let off. The Mohurir, the accountants, and the cashier received sentence of imprisonment. All Sasibhusan's property was sold. He, Bipin, and Kamini live with Gopal.

Pramada lives with her father; but Gopal has to find her in food and clothing. On this account he wished to bring her under his own roof, but Sasibhusan dissuaded him. Pramada has no society, since she quarrels with everyone. The only one to whom she speaks is her mother.

Bidhubhusan left the Deputy-Collector and came to dwell with his son. Young as he is, his hair is white; he seems older than Sasibhusan. Shornalata has a son. Bidhubhusan spends the whole day with this boy in his arms or playing with him. The child's pet name is Nyapal.

Six months in each year Hom Chandra comes to dwell in the house of Gopal and Shornalata, where they are inexpressibly happy. Once there, he seems as if he could not go home. If anything occurs to prevent his coming at the usual time, Gopal and Shornalata are both sorrowful and angry. Shyama is as a mistress in the house. Shornalata treats her as if she were her husband's mother.

Bidhubhusan had formed a strong affection for Nilkamal. In sorrow both had left their homes for the first time to earn money. Bidhubhusan being now happy, had a great desire to see Nilkamal happy; but though he sought him in many places, he never found him.

THE END.

EXHIBITION OF NEEDLEWORK, MADRAS.

The Madras Branch of the National Indian Association will hold a fourth Annual Exhibition of Needlework, &c., at the beginning of 1885.

1. The following prizes will be offered:

I. For the best collection of Native garments, cut out and made entirely by the exhibitor or exhibitors, two prizes, one a sovereign and the other Rs. 10; the first to be awarded to a Native lady, and the second to the pupils of a Native Girls' School.

II. For the best specimen of Native embroidery applied to Native garments, two prizes as in para. I.

III. For the best collection of English garments, two prizes of Rs. 12, or an English sovereign and Rs. 10, to be awarded as in para. I.

IV. For the best specimen of English embroidery, in satin-stitch or open work, *white*, two prizes as in para. III.

V. For the best specimen of crewel-work, two prizes as in para. III.

VI. For the best Indian design, for embroidery, two prizes.

VII. For the best specimen of mending by darning on old cloth or stocking, two prizes as in para. III.

VIII. For the best specimen of mending by patching, two prizes as in para. III.

IX. For the best specimen of pillow-lace, *white*, two prizes as in para. III.

X. For the best specimen of pillow-lace, *gold* or *silver*, two prizes as in para. III.

XI. For the best specimen of knitting, one prize.

XII. For the best sampler, with English or vernacular letters, two prizes.

XIII. For the best Kinder-Garten work, two prizes.

2. The specimens of Needlework should be sent to Mrs. Grigg, between January 15th and 31st, 1885.

3. Each competitor for a prize should send with the specimens a declaration, attested by herself, or her parent or guardian, that the work has been executed entirely by herself. In the case of a school, the declaration should be to the effect that the work has been executed entirely by the pupils in the school, and should be signed by the Manager.

- (a) The garments exhibited must not be in miniature, but of a useful size.
- (b) In awarding prizes I. and III., the shape of the garments, the beauty, and strength of the Needlework, and the size and variety of the collection, will all be taken into consideration.
- (c) In awarding prizes for embroidery and other fancy-work, the beauty of the workmanship, the taste displayed in colour and form, and the suitability of the ornamental work for the purpose to which it is applied, will all be taken into consideration.
- (d) In awarding prizes for Kinder-Garten work, that which shows a knowledge of Froebel's principles and ideas will be valued more highly than that which displays only mechanical skill.
- (e) No prizes will be given for kinds of work not mentioned in this notice.

- (f) Work sent from schools should have the name and address of the schools securely fastened on *each piece*, and should be accompanied by a list.
 - (g) Work sent by private individuals, as well as the boxes containing it and their keys, should have the name and address of the owner similarly secured.
4. Competitors for prizes will not be allowed to send the same specimen twice for exhibition.
5. Those who desire to sell their contributions may also, if they appoint an agent of their own to conduct the sales, remit the proceeds and return any work that remains unsold. The price should be clearly marked on each article.
6. The Sub-Committee will be glad to receive specimens of fine Needlework (both plain and fancy) for exhibition only. These also should be sent to the care of Mrs. Grigg.
7. All the specimens will be returned to such exhibitors as send a messenger to fetch them within a fortnight after the close of the exhibition. If this is not done, the Secretary cannot be responsible for the safe-keeping and return of specimens belonging to contributors in the town of Madras. Contributors in the Mofussil are requested to arrange, if possible, for the removal of their contributions by a messenger in Madras. When this is impossible, the Secretary will, if requested, return the specimens by train or post, in which case it is requested that the receipt be acknowledged immediately.
8. Competitors who receive a certificate or prize are requested to send an acknowledgment immediately.

ELIZABETH L. GRIGG,
*Honorary Secretary, Sub-Committee,
 National Indian Association,*

HOLLOWAY'S GARDENS, ~~PARTHURST ROAD,~~
 MADRAS, 27th May, 1884.

Madras.

SOCIAL AND PHILANTHROPIC INSTITUTIONS, OF THE WEST.

IX.—THE LONDON SCHOOL OF MEDICINE FOR WOMEN, HENRIETTA STREET, BRUNSWICK SQUARE.

The London School of Medicine for Women is one practical result of a hard and persevering struggle for a quarter of a century on the part of women in England who desired to enter the medical profession, and of the friends and supporters of their

effort. Before giving details about the institution, it seems desirable to refer briefly to the circumstances which called it into existence.

At the time when the question was first raised as to whether women might take their place among recognised medical practitioners, the Medical Act of 1858 had only lately passed. One main purpose of that Act was to institute a system of registration, by means of which the public should be enabled to distinguish between qualified and unqualified doctors. A General Medical Council was appointed, upon which nineteen Examining bodies had representatives. No one was to be recognised as a legally or duly-qualified medical practitioner who had not registered under this Act; and, as a title to registration, candidates were required to prove that they had been satisfactorily examined by one of the nineteen Examining bodies. The Act, however, allowed those who had been examined before it was passed, and those who were in practice with a foreign degree, to register without further examination. This permission was taken advantage of by Miss Elizabeth Blackwell, who had, in 1849, taken the M.D. degree in the United States, and had established herself in practice in London. The first register, therefore, contained the name of one woman, though no mention was made of women in the Act. Just at this time the question of increased opportunities of useful occupation for women had begun to engage attention, and, with Dr. E. Blackwell's example in view, it was felt that the medical profession would prove a valuable opening for women of high ability and earnest character who wished to maintain themselves, and to benefit others of their own sex by the alleviation of suffering. In 1860 Miss Garrett (now Mrs. Garrett Anderson, M.D.) made the attempt to obtain medical instruction, with a view to becoming a qualified practitioner. She was allowed to attend some classes at the existing medical schools; and for other subjects, though at great cost, she succeeded in obtaining tuition. She even found means of securing, after much difficulty, the necessary Hospital teaching. Thus in 1865 Miss Garrett was in a position to apply for registration as a licentiate of Apothecaries' Hall. Her claim was admitted, but early in 1867, immediately after Miss Morgan and two other ladies had passed the Preliminary Examination, the authorities decided to pass a rule excluding candidates who had received any private medical instruction. By this rule women were practically altogether excluded; for in some subjects all public classes were closed to them. However, now two women were legally qualified by having been placed on the register, and though for twelve years these were the only two, others at once began

to prepare for the medical profession, in the hope that the door would at last be opened to them. Several ladies—among them Miss Morgan (now Mrs. Hoggan, M.D.) and Mrs. Atkins—entered as students at Continental Universities, and obtained, at Paris, Zurich, or Berne, well-earned diplomas, on which they practiced until registration could be obtained.

We now come to the endeavour which, by its failure, led to the founding of a distinct School of Medicine for women in London. Miss Jex Blake, M.D., in 1869, first alone, then with Miss Pechey, Mrs. Thorne, Miss Chaplin, and Mrs. Evans, applied to be allowed to join the University of Edinburgh, under an arrangement of separate classes for medical instruction. After a few months delay the application was granted. The five ladies matriculated and entered on their medical course. During the second session, however, a strong opposition began. The professors objected to deliver a duplicate course of lectures to women, and the students behaved tumultuously. The consequence was that the University authorities tried to reverse what they had done by asserting that they had exceeded their powers. The women students were now ten in number. They would not give up the accorded permission simply upon this change of view. So in 1873 the case was tried, and judgment was given in their favour; Lord Gifford (the Lord Ordinary) deciding that the University had the power to admit women. But the Edinburgh University did not wish to have or to exercise such a power. The authorities appealed in the following year to the whole Court of Session, and, by a bare majority, they obtained a reversal of Lord Gifford's judgment. The lady students were therefore henceforth forbidden to attend any University classes. This door being shut, they turned their thoughts to other ways of obtaining their end, and resolved to trust to public opinion and to their own exertions. In Parliament, Mr. Cowper Temple (now Lord Mount Temple), Mr. Russell Gurney, Q.C., Mr. Stansfeld, and other firm friends of the cause, tried zealously, for some time apparently in vain, to make the medical career free for women. At last, in 1876, a Bill which had been introduced by Mr. Russell Gurney, enabling the nineteen British examining bodies to extend their examinations to women as well as to men, received the support of Government and became law. The Bill was simply a permissive one, but it bore good fruits, as we shall explain later. Whilst the matter was being pressed in Parliament, Miss Jex Blake and her fellow-students determined to start a School of Medicine in London, in which, without any external hindrances, women could receive a medical training. A house was taken near Brunswick Square, a good staff of lecturers was secured, and

thus, in 1874, the present institution, the School of Medicine for Women, took its rise. One serious hindrance to its efficiency still existed. No London Hospital of the required size would entertain the application from the School in regard to clinical instruction for its students. But after a while even this obstacle was overcome. The Royal Free Hospital, which has no male School, acceded in 1877, on certain conditions, to the request made; the needed facilities for Hospital study were granted, and the training of the School thus became entirely adapted to the course required for the recognised medical examinations.

The London School of Medicine for Women has the following curriculum:—*First Year, Winter*: Anatomy, Practical Anatomy and Chemistry, Minor Surgery, Auscultation, and Out-Patients' posts at the Hospital. *Summer*: Practical Chemistry, Practical Physiology, Out-Patients' posts at the Hospital. *Second Year, Winter*: Anatomy, Practical Anatomy, Physiology, Chemistry. *Summer*: Materia Medica, Practical Chemistry. (First Professional Examination to be passed at the end of this year). *Third Year, Winter*: Medicine, Surgery or Midwifery, Hospital In-Patients' posts (Medical and Surgical). *Summer*: Forensic Medicine, Pathology, Hospital In-Patients' posts (Medical and Surgical). *Fourth Year, Winter and Summer*: Medicine, Midwifery or Surgery, Hospital Ophthalmic Surgery, Gynecology, three months Fever Hospital, six months Practical Midwifery. (Final Professional Examination to be passed at the end of this year.) The fee for the ordinary curriculum of non-clinical lectures is £80 if paid in one sum, or £85 if paid by instalments in each year. A small further fee admits to additional courses. Non-compounders pay £8 8s. for each course of winter lectures, and £5 5s. for each course of summer lectures. In addition to these fees, a fee for four years' clinical instruction at the Royal Free Hospital is £50, or £45 if in one sum. Ladies not desiring to study medicine with a view to practice may attend the classes by permission of the Executive Council; but such students do not receive certificates. Examinations are held in each class of the ordinary curriculum, and attendance on the examinations is required from all students. No residence is possible at the School; but there are boarding-houses and college residences near, to which students are recommended. Several scholarships are attached to the School; and very shortly one of £50 for five years will be granted to a lady willing to prepare for the practice of medicine among the women of India. The award of this scholarship rests with the Medical Women for India Sub-Committee of the National Indian Association. In the list of officers and lecturers are to be found medical men of distinguished position;

and some ladies also take subjects. Mrs. Garrett Anderson, M.D., is Hon. Dean of the School; Mrs. Thorne is Hon. Secretary. At the late prize distribution, presided over by the Dean of Westminster, Mrs. Garrett Anderson stated that during the last year 38 students had received instruction at the school and the Royal Free Hospital. It was gratifying to hear on that occasion from the Treasurer, the Rt. Hon. James Stansfeld, M.P., that the Governors of the Royal Free Hospital had generously remitted the annual payment of £300 hitherto made by the School for the privilege of sending students to study in its wards. The remission will prove of great help to the funds of the School, which, however, are still in need of some assistance, as the fees do not at present cover all expenses.

Before concluding this short account of an important movement, we will mention the effect of the enabling Bill, already referred to, which permitted the nineteen Examining bodies to open their Examinations to women if they chose to do so. In the autumn of the year in which the Bill passed—1876—Miss Edith Pechey made application to two Examining bodies in Ireland, which both granted her request. One of them, the Queen's University, proved, however, not available at that time, owing to certain requirements of attendance at one of the Queen's Colleges, which those Colleges refused. But the Irish College of Physicians made no conditions, and in 1878 the following ladies were admitted and passed: Dr. E. Walker Dunbar, Dr. Frances Hoggan (M.D. Zurich), Dr. Sophia Jex Blake (M.D. Berne), Dr. Louisa Atkins (M.D. Zurich), and Dr. Edith Pechey (M.D. Berne). By this Examination all these ladies' names were placed on the Medical Register. Since that date the important event has occurred that the University of London, notwithstanding a strong effort made by some medical men to impede the matter, ~~has~~ by its new Charter admitted women to all its degrees. It is well known to our readers that Mrs. Scharlieb passed the London M.B. degree with Honours, obtaining a Gold Medal in Midwifery; and other students of the School of Medicine have also passed with the greatest credit. There are now three Examining bodies, one in England and two in Ireland, through which women can prove their claim to be placed on the Medical Register. There are already on the Medical Register thirty-eight women, and more come forward for the profession every year.

We must not omit notice of an institution which has by its usefulness greatly helped forward the general movement—the New Hospital for Women at 222 Marylebone Road, founded on smaller premises in 1872, while the Edinburgh case was going on. It is entirely officered by women, and it has proved

of very great value to sufferers of their own sex, by its twenty-six beds and its Dispensary.

The opening of the medical profession to women does not yet meet with universal approval; but those ladies who have availed themselves of the hardly-acquired privilege have done much, by the able and satisfactory way in which they have made use of it, to lessen the objections of opponents. No one expects or wishes that a large number should devote themselves to this profession. It has, however, been proved that such aid is very highly appreciated by women and for children; and it is on all accounts desirable that no arbitrary restrictions should exist in regard to evidently useful work, and that those women, who wish to gain for themselves this honourable, remunerative position, should be free to employ their capacities in such a direction. The movement, as readers of this *Journal* know, is already proving an influence for good in India. We need not here refer to the remarkable steps of progress which have followed the suggestions made two years ago by Dr. Frances Hoggan in the *Contemporary Review*. Practice in that country for medical women has become a matter of practical consideration in England, and also in the United States, where, in fact, the original start in respect to the whole question was courageously made. Indian ladies also have been stimulated to prepare themselves by a thorough training for the service of their countrywomen, and the Government of India has shown cordial sympathy with all these efforts. We trust that the London School of Medicine will rise, by the exertions of its Council and the unremitting study and the distinctions of its students, to the importance which its objects deserve.

MAHARAJA OF VIJAYANAGARAM'S GIRLS' SCHOOLS.

THE Sub-Committee of the Madras Branch of the National Indian Association, for the management of the Girls' Schools of His Highness the Maharaja of Vijayanagaram, have much pleasure in laying before the public the following report upon the working of these Schools during the year 1883.

2. On the first January, 1883, there were 535 girls on the rolls of the five Schools under the management of the Committee; and the number had risen to 583 on the 31st December, showing an increase of 48 girls during the year under report. Of the girls, on the last day of the year, 335 were learning Tamil; and 248, Telugu. The following shows the distribution of these girls among the different Schools:—

		Tamil.	Telugu.	Total.
(1.)	Town School ...	100	98	198
(2.)	Triplicane School...	50	64	114
(3.)	Mailapur do. ...	77	24	101
(4.)	Chintadripet do. ...	62	47	109
(5.)	Egmur do. ...	46	15	61
	Total ...	335	248	583

TOWN SCHOOL.

3. This is the largest and the most important of the Schools of the Maharaja. The attendance slightly declined during the year. The School opened with 209 girls in the beginning of January, and closed in December with 198; showing a falling-off of 11. The average number on the rolls during the year was 199, and the average attendance 153, or 77 per cent.

TRIPLICANE SCHOOL.

4. The rolls of this School numbered 112 at the beginning and 114 at the end of the year, showing a slight increase. The average number on the rolls was 113, and the average attendance 86, or 76 per cent.

MAILAPUR SCHOOL.

5. This School contained 86 girls at the beginning and 101 at the end of the year, showing an increase of 15 girls. The average number on the rolls during the year was 91, and the average attendance 73, or 80 per cent.

CHINTAD RIPET SCHOOL.

6. This School showed an increase of 31 girls during the year, as there were 78 at the beginning and 109 at the end. The average number on the rolls was 92, and the average attendance 74, or 80 per cent.

EGMUR SCHOOL.

7. This is the smallest of the Maharaja's Schools. There were 50 girls at the beginning of the year and 61 at the end, showing an increase of 11 girls. The average number on the rolls was 49, and the average attendance 39, or 80 per cent.

8. The Schools were inspected by Mrs. Brander, Inspectress of Girls' Schools, and her Deputy, in December. 21 girls were examined altogether from the different Schools for the Upper Primary and 40 for the Lower Primary. Mrs. Brander's report has not yet been received.

9. Three girls appeared for the Special Upper Primary Examination held in December, two from the Town School and one from the Mailapur School. The Committee regret to learn that all of them failed.

10. In their report for 1882 the Committee intimated their intention of placing the schools under the superintendence of a qualified European lady, and of applying to Government for a grant, with the object of meeting the necessary increase in the expenditure. The Committee are now happy to be able to report that they have succeeded in securing both these objects. They have engaged the services of Miss Emily Eddes, a European lady with very high testimonials, as Superintendent of the schools. This lady was educated at the Home and Colonial Schools and Queen's College, Harley Street, London. Her experience in teaching, and in the organization of schools, has been considerable. The Committee have also succeeded in securing a grant in aid of the salaries of the Superintendent and many of the teachers employed in the schools.

11. The Committee are gradually replacing inefficient and untrained teachers by certificated and trained school-mistresses; but the dearth of suitable school-mistresses, as well as the consideration which must be shown to old employes, render it necessary to proceed slowly in this direction. They have as yet been able to place one of the schools only in charge of a school-mistress; viz., the Town School, which is the most important of the schools under their management. Miss Shanmagam, who was trained in the Government Female Normal School, and who holds a First-class School-mistress's Certificate, has been appointed head-mistress. The services of two more school-mistresses have also been secured in the Town School. The Chintadripet School has been placed in charge of a new head-master, and changes have been made in the teaching staff of the other schools.

12. As soon as Miss Eddes entered upon her duties, she directed her attention to the needlework and drawing taught in the schools. She found that many of the needlework mistresses and the drawing-master were not efficient. The services of three needlework mistresses were dispensed with, and others engaged in their stead. The drawing-master was also dismissed, and his duties undertaken by Miss Eddes herself.

13. The work of the year under report was somewhat interrupted by the many changes above referred to. A transition period is necessarily trying, but the Committee believe that much has been done to pave the way for better work in the current year.

14. One of the first objects of the Superintendent has been to improve the sanitary condition of the school-houses, and to encourage the pupils to be uniformly neat and clean in appearance, and to attend school regularly. The numbers of the infant classes are very large, and it is in this department that the help of trained

women-teachers is especially needed to carry out modern work, and employ the time of the little children more profitably than can be done by masters. It is proposed at once to obtain a supply of Kindergarten materials, such as paper-mats, cardboard work, cubes and pictures, for the infant classes. Some Kindergarten games have been taught in the Triplicane School, as that is the only school which is provided with a house where there is sufficient space; but the want of teachers to keep up regular practice has prevented much being done. A game of ball in the afternoon has appeared to give the children much pleasure. Drilling was attempted in three schools; but as in each case objections were raised by parents of pupils, it was thought well to postpone this subject.

15. Drawing on Kindergarten principles has been taught in all the five schools; and it has proved successful, not only in bringing out any talent possessed by the pupils, but in cultivating habits of neatness and order.

16. Great attention has been paid to the needlework; and, although the appointment of new teachers for this branch is comparatively recent, there is promise of great improvement—where indeed it was much needed. Wash-hand basins and towels have been supplied in all the schools, and the work is already kept much cleaner. A fair supply of both native and European garments has been made during the past four or five months.

17. During the year the Committee introduced a regular scale of school fees at the following rates, and limited the number of free scholars to five per cent. :—

	Town, Triplicane and Mailapur Schools.			Chintadripet and Eggnur Schools.		
		AS.			AS.	
Infant Class	...	2	1	
Preparatory Class	...	3	1½	
First	"	4	2	
Second	"	6	3	
Third	"	8	4	

They hope ere long to be able to enhance the fee-rates, so as to render the schools more self-supporting without checking the attendance of girls of poor families.

18. A beginning has been made in continuing at home the education of girls who have left school, and with this object Miss Eddes has kindly undertaken the supervision of the Home Teaching operations of the National Indian Association.

19. In December last, H. H. the Maharaja visited the Town, Triplicane and Mailapur Schools, and expressed himself very much pleased with the work being done in these schools.

20. From the Abstract of Receipts and Disbursements appended, it will be seen that the receipts during the year amounted to Rs. 13,051-14-8, and the disbursements to Rs. 11,835-14-0, leaving a balance of Rs. 1,216-0-8. Of the receipts, the sum of Rs. 8,890-0-0 was contributed by the Maharaja, and Rs. 2,658-1-8 received from Government as grant in aid. The school-fee collections amounted to Rs. 891-10-6, against Rs. 686-6-5 in the previous year.

21. In conclusion, the Committee have to thank Government for the liberal grant sanctioned for the schools. The Committee are also under great obligation to Miss Manning, the Hon. Sec. to the National Indian Association, for the kind interest always evinced by that lady in these schools, and for sending through Miss Eddes, the Superintendent, two boxes of toys and pieces of work.

(By order) P. VIJAYARANGAM MUDALIYAR,
Honorary Secretary.

MADRAS, 25th January, 1884.

INDIAN INTELLIGENCE.

A large meeting was held at Poonah on July 19th, presided over by Sir William Wedderburn, Bart., at which it was resolved to establish there a High School for Girls. Mr. Chatfield, the Director of Public Instruction, was present, and all classes and castes of the native community were represented at the meeting. Colonel Reeves, Political Agent at Kolhapore, expressed his sympathy by an encouraging letter. The proceedings were opened by the announcement that Lady Ripon had sent Rs. 1,000 towards the object of the meeting. A message was then read from the ladies belonging to the Arya Mahila Samaj, or Indian Ladies' Association, urging the necessity of increasing the existing means of educating native girls. The following donations and scholarships were at once promised:—His Highness the Regent of Kolhapore, Rs. 10,000; Mr. Desvihi Hariprasad Santukrans, J.P., Rs. 6,000; Lady Mayi Saheb Daphali, of Jat, two annual scholarships of Rs. 240 each; Mr. Ganpatrao Mankar, a scholarship of Rs. 60 annually; Sardar Bapu Saheb Nimbalkar, a scholarship of Rs. 10 monthly. It is very satisfactory that the native ladies of Poonah have such efficient help in regard to the object they have long wished to secure.

A Khojah gentleman of Bombay, Mr. Jairambhoy Peerbhoy, has offered to found a school for the girls of his own community.

With this object, he has handed over to the Director of Public Instruction the sum of Rs. 15,000, on condition that a girls' school, to be called the Jairazbhoy Peerbhoy Girls' School, should be permanently endowed out of the interest, and efficiently maintained by the Department of Public Instruction in the chief Khojah quarter of the city. We are glad to find that a subsidiary condition is that the instruction is to be given by female teachers. Mr. Chatfield, the Director, has conveyed to this gentleman the thanks of Government for his public spirit and patriotic munificence. The school was to be opened without delay.

It is proposed to establish a Veterinary College at Bombay, upon land given by Mr. Dinshaw Manockji Petit for the purpose. The cost, which is estimated at Rs. 210,000, will be borne proportionately by Government and local bodies.

Babu Nakur Chunder Biswas has published part 2 of a series of biographies of distinguished women, European and Indian. The book is said to be written in "easy and good Bengali." It will prove useful as a prize in girls' schools, and for home reading among Bengali ladies.

The Dewan of Mysore is making arrangements for the opening of a School of Arts at Bangalore; and it is expected that Mr. T. Rangasawmy Pillay, an artist of nearly eighteen years' standing, will be appointed Superintendent.

We deeply regret to have to record the death, after a lingering illness, on July 24th, at Calcutta, of the Hon. Kristo Das Pal Rai Bahadur, C.E., editor of the *Hindu Patriot*. He was a man of rare ability, a powerful writer and speaker, remarkable for his knowledge and his industry, simple and generous of disposition. He used his extensive influence in a disinterested manner, and will be greatly missed in and beyond his community.

PERSONAL INTELLIGENCE.

Khan Bahadur Bomanji Sorabji, C.E., has passed the Examination for the Ph.D. degree in the Royal Bavarian University of Würzburg. The three subjects chosen by Mr. Bomanji Sorabji were, Inorganic and Organic Chemistry, Experimental and Mathematical Physics, and Mathematics.

At the close of the summer session of the Royal Agricultural College, Cirencester, Mr. Syed Mohammed Hossain (Lucknow) stood first in order of merit among the students who gained the Diploma of the College; and he also obtained the Holland Gold Medal.

Mr. Kaikhosro Bahadurji has passed the Intermediate Examination in Medicine of the University of London in the First Division. In the Honours Examination he took Third Class Honours with the second place in Physiology, and First Class Honours with the fourth place in Materia Medica. He has also obtained in the Terminal Examinations of University College, the Second Silver Medal (equal with another student) in Anatomy, the First Silver Medal in Materia Medica and Therapeutics, and a Second and First Class Certificate in Physiology and Chemical Physiology respectively.

Mr. Aurung Shah (Assam) stood second in the late Competitive Examination in Zoology and Comparative Anatomy of the University of Glasgow; and he obtained a First Class Certificate of Honour.

Mr. Cawas Lalcaca and Mr. Jamsetji Franji Kolaporewalla have passed the L.R.C.P. of London, Examination.

The Benchers of the Middle Temple, in the last Scholarship Examination, awarded a prize in Common Law to Mr. Jitendra N. Palit.

In the Competitive Examination, held last month, for the Indian Medical Service, Mr. U. N. Mukerji stood fourth among the five successful candidates, with 2,411 marks.

In the recent Examination of the Selected Indian Medical Service Candidates for commissions as surgeons in the Service, Mr. H. E. Banatvala stood third among the five candidates, with 4,606 marks.

In the Technological Examination, held by the City and Guilds of London at the end of May, Mr. Ardeshier Burjorji Master passed with honour in Electric Engineering.

Pundita Rama Bui has been appointed Teacher of Sanscrit and Oriental Languages in the Ladies' College, Cheltenham.

The Gilchrist Scholar for this year is Babu Manick Lall Dutt, a student of the Presidency College, Calcutta.

We have the satisfaction to announce that Mary Lady Hobart and Mrs. Carmichael have become members of the Committee of the National Indian Association, and that Lady Hobhouse has become a Life Member of the Association by a subscription of ten guineas.

Errata.—We regret that the two following misprints occurred in the article by Sir Alexander J. Arbuthnot, on the Education Commission Report, in the August number of this *Journal*. On page 337, line 17, the word "and" was erroneously inserted between "higher" and "secondary." On page 340, line 2, for "twin-born," read "twice-born."

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LIFE OF THE HONOURABLE MOUNTSTUART ELPHINSTONE.*

THERE are few departments of literature more interesting than biography; none, perhaps, in which success is more rare. Sir T. E. Colebrooke's *Life of Mountstuart Elphinstone* will be a most welcome addition to every Anglo-Indian library. Most readers are familiar with the sketch of Elphinstone's career given by Sir J. W. Kaye in his *Lives of Indian Officers*. An excellent memoir of his life and services, from the pen of Sir T. E. Colebrooke himself, which appeared in the *Journal of the Royal Asiatic Society* of 1861, is, perhaps, not quite so generally known. The present work is founded on this memoir, large portions of which are reproduced verbatim; but it derives its main charm from the copious extracts which it contains from Mountstuart Elphinstone's journals and private correspondence with Mr. E. Strachey and Mr. W. Erskine, to which Sir T. E. Colebrooke had not access when he wrote the memoir. The journals, with the exception of some volumes containing an account of his travels on his homeward journey, were not intended for the perusal of friends, and not only record the every-day occurrences of his private life, with remarks on the books he was reading and the places which he was visiting, but contain frequent references to his feelings,

* *Life of the Honourable Mountstuart Elphinstone*. By Sir T. E. Colebrooke, Bart., M.P. In two vols., with portraits and map. London: John Murray. 1884.

resolutions as to his conduct. The absence of any admissions to his official duties is a somewhat peculiar feature in them, but it appears that he laid down a rule not to enter into such matters.

The public career of a man who played so great a part in the formation of our Indian Empire could scarcely have been made intelligible to the English reader without an occasional bird's-eye view of the state of Indian politics. This portion of the work is very skilfully done. The historical digressions are clear and concise. The career of the statesman is not lost in the history of the period. Sir T. E. Colebrooke has devoted a lifetime to the study of Indian questions, and writes with a fulness of knowledge, which is sometimes wanting in writers who take up such subjects. Thus, to quote a case in point, we are told in the *Encyclopædia Britannica*, in an otherwise well-written article, that "so high was Elphinstone's reputation for administrative ability that when the lieutenant-governorship of Bombay fell vacant, in 1819, the Court of Directors appointed him to the position in preference to two candidates of distinguished merit, who were both his seniors."

Elphinstone's lot was cast in India at a period when soldiers were statesmen and statesmen were soldiers. In his boyhood he "dreamt of winning battles that would throw into the shade the great struggles of the age," and is described as full of fun, and always at the head of the little boys in the neighbourhood in their adventurous expeditions. Mr. John Russell, one of his early friends, gives the following amusing account of him at this period:—

"Mr. Elphinstone's father, Lord Elphinstone, then an officer in the army, was, at the time I first knew his son, the Governor of Edinburgh Castle, where he resided with his family in the Governor's house. This must have been about, or some time after, the breaking out of the French Revolution; at least it must have been some time after our first engagements with the French at sea; for there were then confined in the castle a great number of French prisoners, some of whom made a little support to themselves by manufacturing snuff-boxes and little toys of wood. From being intimate with Mountstuart, I was frequently with him in the castle, and our great amusement was to traffic with the prisoners for their wares, and perhaps practise our small French, which we were then learning at school, and talking

to them. This led to their singing French songs to us, which we learnt from them; and as they were zealous Republicans, their songs were all to that tune. Nothing amused Mountstuart so much as going about the castle singing these songs, which consisted, *inter alia*, of the 'Marseillaise,' 'Ça ira,' 'Les Aristocrates à la Lanterne,' and other democratic songs then in vogue in France.

"The old officers looked askance at this outrage on their loyal feelings; and Mountstuart, if he had not been the Governor's son, would probably have been checked in a way he would not have liked; but I do not recollect anything more than possibly a private reprimand having been inflicted. He was at all times a very lively, sprightly boy, with a light figure and curly golden locks, and very good-looking."

In spite of his military predilections, Elphinstone was delighted when he heard of his appointment to the Bengal Civil Service. This nomination he obtained in March, 1795, through the interest of his uncle, William Elphinstone, who, after commanding a ship in the service of the East India Company, had become one of its directors. He was then still under sixteen, and had received a very imperfect education, partly under a private tutor, until his twelfth year, and afterwards at the Edinburgh High School and Dr. Thompson's school at Kensington. His uncle desired him to leave off Greek, and to apply himself to writing and ciphering during the six weeks which would intervene before the fleet sailed. He gives his mother the following list of the books he was taking on board:—

"My most considerable books are the *Novelist's Magazine*, twenty-five large volumes, containing two or three novels each, and the British Classics, same size, five volumes, containing such things as the *Spectator*, *Guardian*, *Rambler*; and *Mundell's Poets*, containing every good British poet; and the *Encyclopædia Britannica*."

After a short stay at the "noble blackguard town" of Portsmouth, he embarked on board the *Berrington*. The voyage to Calcutta, including detentions at Rio Janeiro and Madras, occupied more than eight months. He was met by his brother James, who had gone out in the Civil Service two years before, and was at once appointed assistant to Mr. Strachey, who held the office of Registrar under Mr. Davis at Benares, where his brother was also stationed. This mode

of training young men for the public service was, of course, a perilous one, but it was not without some advantages. "Those," says the biographer, "who are placed early in situations of responsibility, and rise superior to the temptations by which they are beset, acquire a force of character which no scheme of training can create. The circumstances in which Mr. Elphinstone was placed were favourable to this early development, and I attribute to this some of the precocity he was soon to display."

One of the temptations which beset young civilians at this period was the facility with which they could borrow money. Elphinstone, as was usual in those days, began his career by running into debt, and remained in debt for many years. He also at this period entered on that course of systematic reading which was so marked a feature in his life, and commenced the practice of keeping a journal. The Benares journals perished in the destruction of the Residency at Poona in 1817, and very little is, therefore, known of his life at this period. From a letter to his uncle, Lord Keith, it appears that he had to wait on the Governor-General, Sir John Shore, who arrived suddenly at Benares, on his way to Lucknow, in consequence of the threatening state of affairs in the North-West, where an invasion by Zemaun Shah, the Affghan ruler, was expected. His work on this occasion merely consisted in copying some letters to the Resident of Lucknow. Elphinstone was at Benares when Mr. Cherry, the Resident, and the British officers with him, were massacred by Vizier Ali and his armed followers during the course of an official visit; but neither he nor his friend Houston, who was staying with him at the time, knew anything of the murders around them "until," in the words of Mr. Houston, "all the other Europeans had been destroyed or had fled, when we mounted our horses, pursued by a body of the enemy, whose pursuit was eluded by riding through a high sugar-cane plantation, when they lost sight of us."

In 1801 he proceeded to Calcutta, and entered the new college founded by Lord Wellesley. While there he was offered a diplomatic appointment of Rs.800 a month at Poona, and set out, accompanied by his friend Strachey and a young officer named Hamilton, who was going to Hyderabad. Colonel Kirkpatrick was to have marched with them, but for some reason or other did not do so. They had, however,

apparently, the benefit of his camp equipage and escort; for after they had reached Midnapore by dawk, their retinue is described as consisting of eight elephants, eleven camels, four horses, ten bullocks of their own, besides tattoos (ponies) and bullocks belonging to the servants, twenty sepoys, and 150 to 200 servants and coolies. Their route lay through what was then foreign territory—Juggernaut, the Chilka Lake, Ganjam, and other portions of the Northern Circars. Near Ganjam the refractory Zemindars were plundering the open country, and burning the villages on all sides. “A Mahratta condottier, with thirty or forty men,” was hired for their protection. Upon entering the Madras territory they left their tents and servants, and dawked down to Madras, where they whiled away some time, and were hospitably entertained by the Governor. We next find Elphinstone spending a month at Bangalore, and making excursions in the neighbourhood; then at Seringapatam, where he and Strachey were entertained by Colonel Wellesley; and, finally, at Hyderabad, where they remained three months. In this leisurely and circuitous fashion they eventually arrived at their destination, Poona. In these days, when the Accountant-General, armed with a Travelling Allowance Code, insists on officers joining their stations by the most direct route and with the utmost expedition, one can scarcely read the account of Elphinstone’s march without a sigh for the pleasant customs of days gone by. The following passage was written on the banks of the Chilka lake:—

“We rode along a very narrow isthmus between the Chilka and the sea. We drove a herd of antelopes before us for a mile or two. After we had galloped on the beach for three-quarters of an hour, we rode on the sands. We got to the Company’s godown at Mito Alam at about eight. Breakfasted at nine. I walked to the sea and along the shore. When I came back I was bilious and ill; at eleven I found myself still unwell, so I lay down and slept till half-past twelve. I read some of the ninth book of Virgil—the battle on the Trojan wall—and I then sat with Hamilton for some time, and talked about the life of a subaltern. Then I walked with him and Strachey to the seaside. They left me then, and went to bathe in the lake. I walked for a long time and looked at the sea. I thought of the descriptions and figures taken from it in Homer and Virgil. I was sorry when I thought how little I read such authors. My debt, and my duty compel me to learn Persian

and Hindi. I then thought how little I was exerting myself to acquire them, how little I thought at all now. I thought on the consequences of my never reflecting, my high opinion of myself, which is sure to increase in proportion to my idleness and thoughtlessness. I remembered the many fruitless resolutions which I had made to subdue this arrogance. I saw the effects of it in my own behaviour. I despise what I do not say myself; oppose plans which are or ought to be indifferent to me. I am fastidious and arrogant; I am not always this, but often. I returned towards the tents. The lake and the opposite shore, fringed with trees, and the hills, were beautiful. The people were trying to surround and kill deer. The bearers did kill one with sticks this morning. Deer, antelopes, jackals, and tame buffaloes are the only animals to be seen on the sands. After I reached the tents it rained for a few minutes. Dressed, read *Hero and Leander*, walked on the shore, dined, and went to bed at ten."

In the following passage Elphinstone reviews his course of reading during the year:—

"October 6th.—They tell me 'tis my birthday. I am now twenty-two. How pleasantly has the time passed since my last birthday! From the beginning of October to March I lived a studious sort of life, but not the studious sort of life that I lived for the year before at Benares, in solitude and depression. During the last four months of 1800 I lived in the house with Adam, and spent most of my evenings with Strachey, and I sometimes broke the monotony of my life by going into company. Since March I have been on a very agreeable journey; the variety of beautiful scenes, and the changes from one agreeable society to another, left no time for tedium. The interval between my leaving Bangalore, and arriving here was the least pleasant part of the year; but among all my ills there were some circumstances which made the recollection even of that period pleasant. Since I arrived here I have been enjoying the return of health, and the ease and tranquillity of my situation.

"With respect to my mind, I have certainly improved in some things since this time last year, in others I have fallen off; on the whole, I think I am a gainer. I have read since last October a good deal of the history relating to the East, a good deal of Timur's *Institutes*, most part of the *Proceedings of the 'Secret Committee,'* Orme's *Hindustan* (a second time), and Strachey's *Narrative History of Persia*, Sale's *Preliminary Discourse to the Koran*, Jones's *Commentarii*, Revigny on *Hafiz*, some of Gilchrist's *Grammar*. I translated with Strachey a con-

siderable part of an Arabic grammar, and read Saadi's *Gulistan*, to the thirty-eighth page, in Harrington's edition (*i.e.*, about three-quarters of Book I.), and a great deal more of his *Bostan*. Of *Hafiz* I read 143 odes in succession, and about as many more here and there; many of them I read many times. I read some of the *Masnawi of Gelaludin*; not much of books not connected with India. I read a good deal of the '*Port Royal*' *Greek Grammar*, an *Odyssey* or two, a few chapters of Herodotus, as much of Hesiod as is in the *Etona Selecta*; the 1st, 7th and 8th *Idylls* of Theocritus, and his *Epithalamium of Helen*; all of Sappho, Theognis, Callistratus, Bion, Moschus and Musæus, as are in that collection (they are most of them scraps); the *Georgics*, all Phædrus, all Horace once over, and many parts repeatedly, and a good deal of Petronius. I looked into the *Italian Grammar*; read the preface and seventy or eighty pages of Tasso, one book of Machiavelli's *History*, a novel and play of his. I read all Bacon's essays, Hume's *Dialogue on Natural Religion*, Berkeley's essay on *The Principles of Human Knowledge*, Middleton's *Free Enquiry*, his letter from Rome, several dissertations of his in Latin and English, some (one vol. and a half) of his *Cicero*, a good deal of Condorcet on *The Human Understanding*; Tracts by Warburton and a Warburtonian, Warburton on the Sixth Book, from *Varton's Virgil*; some essays of Heyne at the end of the 6th vol., Denina's *Revolutions of Literature*, Johnson's *Lives* (I had read them before), Boswell's *Life of Johnson*, Voltaire's *Louis XIV.* in English, Aitkin's *Essay on the Use of Natural History*. In poetry, *Paradise Lost* and *Regained*, all Waller again and again, most of Cowley, Butler and Denham, Pope and Dryden often, the *Baviad* and *Maviad*, Darwin's *Botanic Garden*, *Caractacus*, many of Milton's Latin poems, a great deal of Fontaine, *The Robbers* and two other plays of Schiller, some *Idylls* of Gesner, all Boileau's *Satires*, and a great number of his *Epistles*, and Mithridates. I forgot to mention a great deal of Horace Walpole, Jefferson on *Virginia*, Ramsay's *Revolution of South Carolina*, the preface to *Bellendenus*, Japhor's *Farriery*, The * . . an abstract of St. Pierre's *Etudes de la Nature*, a life of Major Geshpill, the *Nation*, and novels innumerable."

There is an amusing account of Major Kirkpatrick, the Resident of Hyderabad, "a semi-Indianised Englishman, who had married the daughter of the Nizam's Persian Prime Minister, and led a half-Oriental life." He was popularly known under the nickname of Hushmut Jung, lit. "pomp of war."

“Major Kirkpatrick is a good-looking man; seems about thirty, is really about thirty-five. He wears moustachios; his hair is cropped very short, and his fingers are dyed with henna. In other respects he is like an Englishman. He is very communicative and very desirous to please; but he tells long stories about himself, and practises all the affectations of which the face and eyes are capable. He offered me a horse, which I declined. He said the horse should attend me, and that I might do as I pleased.’ The Resident’s conversation appears to have been as eccentric as his manners. He tells a strange story how his hookah-buridar, after cheating and robbing him, proceeded to England and set up as the Prince of Sylhet, took in everybody, was waited upon by Pitt, dined with the Duke of York, and was presented to the King. On the following day at dinner Major Kirkpatrick talked rather wildly about the secrets of the Government being known in the Court before they were communicated officially to the Resident during the recent negotiations for a subsidiary treaty, and he concluded with talking ‘with much pomp about the sources of springs, and with execrable taste about Homer.’”

Elphinstone’s journal after he reaches Poona is full of self-reproaches. The following passage shows the origin of the abstemiousness, which he thenceforward practised through life, at a period when the habits of society rendered it less easy than in our times to keep such resolutions :

“*March 5.*—Had a pleasant conversation at breakfast. Afterwards I had some hot and violent disputes with Waring and Fussell. I was unreasonable and arrogant and supercilious. By-the-bye, my superciliousness, when I show it, must be shockingly offensive. I express in a few words my contempt for my antagonist’s opinion, and then turn from him with disdain. How shocking to degrade oneself so! I have behaved thus twice since I came to Poona, besides to-day. I have drank very little wine since I came to Poona, except in water. I am now accustoming myself to drink my water plain. I shall now drink little or no wine. My principal reason for abstaining is that I may preserve my temper. Excess always makes me irritable. I must pay great attention to preserving my good humour; a contrary disposition in me generally proceeds from an opinion that I am slighted. What can be more contemptible?”

The topics of conversation recorded in the journal are not, observes the biographer, “of the kind to lead to much heat.” This is one of them:—

"Talked with Colonel Close about Burke; he is in love with him. He read some passages from the *Reflections*; the assertions seem to me as false as the language was beautiful. Colonel C. admires both; we disputed. I went away."

The young Assistant was presented to the Peshwa, Bajee Rao, on the 11th February, 1802. In the following month the journal closes abruptly, and opens again as abruptly in the middle of the battle of Argaum, at the close of 1803. A few letters furnish the only materials for his private history during this interval. It was a stirring period. A battle was fought almost at the gates of the Residency in October, 1802, when the Peshwa's government was overthrown by Jeswunt Rao Holkar, and the armies of Sindia and the Peshwa were chased from Poona. The British troops advanced under General Wellesley, and Bajee Rao having been reinstated on the 13th May, 1803, Elphinstone remained at the Residency until he was summoned to the camp, to take Malcolm's place as Secretary to General Wellesley. The General, who wrote his own letters, employed his Secretary in superintending an Intelligence Department, and in translating and interpreting when necessary. During these eventful months Elphinstone had an opportunity of seeing war on a great scale. He was by his chief's side throughout the battle of Assaye. He joined a charge of cavalry at the battle of Argaum, and was with the storming party at the siege of Gawilghar. He gives the following account of his duties to his friend Strachey:—

"My duties are: intelligence, which takes me an hour a day at most; Persian interpreter, two hours a week; Mahratta interpreter, four hours a week; and interpreter of all tongues, which takes me an hour a week, and is my most troublesome appointment. I do not mean that I am impudent; but knowing that I must interpret, whether well or ill, and not having much anxiety about my reputation as a Hindustanee, I interpret quite coolly, and have the use of all my senses and all my language. But my stock of Hindi is really too small. I cannot readily understand all that is said to me, much less say all that I ought to express; I mean in talking to Mahrattas, which is my common employment. I even find a difficulty with Deckanee Musselmans. Their words, their songs and their phrases are so different from the Hindustanee of Gilchrist, that he is of no use to me. It was quite a pleasure to have to interpret once for a man from Delhi, although he spoke horrid nonsense. Of the Intelligence Department, a number of your observations will be answered by

this one—that I have not the control of the Intelligence Department, but only the charge of ten parts out of thirty-four. I think well of your remarks: of some because they had, and of others because they had not, occurred to me before. I thought of sending fakeers, but found the plan so well known that officers used to send fakeers to head-quarters on suspicion. The advantage of sepoys is that you can depend on them, and that you may pick a man whose character you may know. I should not have this advantage even if I could get sepoys, or if ours understood Mahrattas. The horseman plan would be good; but it would make us liable to much imposition, and would be difficult to accomplish with such wretched instruments as our hircarras, perhaps not quite fair. I think, if anyone in this line were to apply, he might improve the intelligence; but I had some people given me, and a way shown me, and so fell into the habit of jogtrottery, the great foe of improvement. This was the more natural, as the present plan answered very well for getting notice of the place where the enemy were. To have carried anything further, as their councils or debates, plans, &c., it would require Major Malcolm and 100 Brahmin caurpauris and 10,000 rupees a day for bribes.”

General Wellesley treated Elphinstone with great kindness.

“When the enemy’s guns opened fire at Assaye he allowed his secretary, who was riding near him, to put questions suggested by mere curiosity. ‘Do you call this a hot fire?’ ‘Well, they are making a great noise,’ was the reply, ‘but I do not see any one hit!’”

In a letter to Strachey from the camp at Assaye he gives a vivid description of the horrors of the battle-field:

“There was a Roman Emperor who said he liked the smell of a dead enemy. If he did he was singular in his taste. We are horribly perfumed with such a smell as he liked, but I would rather smell a living enemy. I went yesterday evening to the field of battle! It was a dark, cloudy evening. I rode by myself, and saw *plurima mortis imago*. Some of the dead are withered, their features still remaining, but their faces blackened to the colour of coal, others still swollen and blistered. The Persian I mentioned was perfect everywhere, and had his great quilted coat on; but his face had fallen, or been eaten off, and his naked skull stared out like the hermit’s of the wood of Joppa (in the Castle of *Otranto*). Kites and adjutants, larger than the Calcutta ones, were feeding on the bodies, and dogs were feasting in some places, and in others howling all over the plain. I saw

a black dog tearing, in a furious way, great pieces of flesh from a dead man, looking fiercely and not regarding me. I thought the group horrible and sublime."

He recurs to the same subject a few days after:

"The field did, as you say, make a strong impression on me, and I thought of it after I went to bed, when it seemed more horrid than it had done before. There have been a number (five or six) of sudden deaths of servants, &c., in camp since the 23rd, and the natives all say it was owing to their having gone to see the dead; that, being unaccustomed to such sights, they had 'hybut kaia,' and died of it."

The following entry in his journal refers to the charge of cavalry at Argaum, where he was carried more than once into the midst of the enemy, who made no effort to cut at him:

"The balls knocked up the dust under our horses' feet. I had no narrow escapes this time, and I felt quite unconcerned, never winced, nor cared how near the shot came about the worst time; and all the time I was at pains to see how the people looked, and every gentleman seemed at ease as much as if he were riding or hunting. . . . In the charge the Dragoons used their swords for some time, and then drew their pistols. . . . I stopped to load my pistols. I saw nobody afterwards but people on foot, whom I did not think it proper to touch. Indeed, there is nothing very gallant in attacking routed and terrified horse, who have not presence of mind either to run or fight."

The following account of the storm of Gawilghar occurs in the journal:—

"I went up to Colonel Kenny, said I heard he was to lead the storming party, and that if he would allow me I would be of his party. He bowed and agreed. Soon after Colonel Stevenson asked Colonel Kenny if he was ready. Colonel Kenny said, 'Yes.' He was ordered to advance. We drew our swords, stuck pistols in our belts or handkerchiefs tied round our middle, and, passing in rear of the batteries, marched on to the breach. Colonel Kenny led the whole; with him went Winfield, Johnson (who had got an unfortunate Pottail to go with him), and myself, and perhaps Lutwidge and an officer of the 94th. Then followed the 94th Regiment. Our advance was silent, deliberate, and even solemn. Everybody expected the place to be well defended. As we got near we saw a number of people running on the rampart, near the breach. Colonel Kenny said they were men-

ning the works. I asked him if they were not flying. He said, 'No, no! they won't fly yet awhile.' We went and got close to the works, to a wide hedge, where Johnson had been during the night. I was amazed that they did not fire; our cannon fired over our heads. We got to the breach, where we halted, and let the forlorn hope, a sergeant's party, run up; then we followed, ran along, and dashed up the second breach and huzzaed. Perhaps the enemy fired a little from some huts by the second breach. I did not see them do so. I saw some of them bayoneted there. We kept to the right after entering the second breach, and soon after the troops poured in, so that there was no distinguishing forlorn hope or anything. Colonel Kenny knocked up, and Johnson and I lost him. I had been frequently told, particularly in the trenches just before advancing, that I should be taken for a European of the enemy's, from my not having regimentals. I thought little of this after leaving the trenches; but in this confusion, losing Johnson, I told Winfield what I apprehended, and stuck to him. Going on to the right, we came to a valley leading to the Cool Derwazeh,* down which the enemy were crowding in their flight."

Here the narrative breaks off, but the rest of the story is told in a letter to Strachey, from which it may be sufficient here to extract a passage describing his feelings on this occasion. Sir T. E. Colebrooke does not give the key to the cypher used in this part:

"As I have told you my feelings before, I will do so now. When I had obtained leave to go over 21, 43, 78, 88, 116, 98, 15 like a 32, 31, 86, 118, 18, 88. I use your own cypher. This ceased, when I set off and did not return. When we went on to the breach I thought I was going to a great danger; but my mind was so made up to it, that I did not care for anything. The party going to the storm put me in mind of the eighth and ninth verses of the third book of Homer:—

οἱ δ' ἄρ' ἴσεν σιγῇ μένεα πνέοντες Ἀχαιοί,
 ἐν θυμῷ μεμαῶτες ἀλεξέμεν ἀλλήλοισιν.

'The Greeks went in silence, breathing strength,
 Resolved in their heart to support one another.'

And after one gets over the breach one is too busy and animated to think of anything but how to get on."

A campaign does not seem a very favourable period for study, but Elphinstone's letters and journals are full of allusions to his books and his reading. A few days after General

* Back gate.

Wellesley had intimated that luggage would probably soon have to be left behind, we find a letter to Strachey commencing :—

“Look if the fifth volume of my *Herodotus* be in any of the book-cases, or anywhere at Poona ; I do not like the appearance of the fourth and sixth being here and not the fifth.”

Soon after the battle of Assaye he thanks Strachey for sending *Cicero* :—

“I have almost done with *Vattel*, and was very anxious to get *Cicero*. I wish I could get the instructive books I wrote for, *Burlamacchi*, *Montesquieu*, &c.”

Four days later he says :—

“Thanks for your sending Dr. B.’s convoy. I tremble for the great jurist. Conceive his falling into the lawless hands of Pindarrees. . . . I shall consume my two seers of wax candles over him and *Cicero*.”

A week after the battle of Assaye he writes to Strachey :—

“I have been made so idle by the constant visiting and talking parties (really interesting ones) to which this battle gave rise that I cannot turn back to *Salamis* and *Platœa* with any satisfaction. I am, in the meantime, reading all Shakespeare critically, and have got as far as the second play, *The Two Gentlemen of Verona*. Pray read that play. The critics deny that it is Shakespeare’s. Theobald admits it is his, but says it is his worst. Johnson says, ‘it has many passages that are ‘eminently beautiful;’ and I say (if I may say anything after Johnson) that it is an excellent play, superior to the run of Shakespeare’s plays, except the famous ones. I have borrowed a capital *Shakespeare* for reading. It has not one note, and I have (in consequence) never met with a difficulty.”

A few days later he writes as follows :—

“I should be sorry to lose your verses. What I said about your Spenser verses set me considering all imitations of Spenser, who is considered the easiest imitated of all our poets. I think, in the best imitation, all you can say is that you know what they are meant for by the verse and the sprinkling of old words, as one knows Charles Fox in caricatures by his black mazzard, but that there is no further resemblance to Spenser. One of Spenser’s characteristics no other poet could ever imitate ; I mean the harmony and majesty of some of his verses. He is in this respect very unequal ; but I will undertake to collect a vast number of

heroic verses out of the *Fairy Queen* which you will not match out of all the rest of our poets, including Dryden and Pope."

Another criticism on Spenser occurs in a letter to Strachey in the previous month :—

"I finished Spenser's *Shepherd's Calendar* yesterday. Much as I like Spenser, I think his Pastorals have been immoderately praised, and that making the crown of eclogue-writing pass from Theocritus and Virgil to him was gross profanation. His Pastorals are much rougher, more antique, and more like Chaucer (whom I believe they are meant to imitate) than the *Fairy Queen*. Here are the first lines of two eclogues, one line good and one bad :—

'Is not thilke the mery moneth of May?'

'Tell me, good Hobbinoll, what garres thee greete?'

On the morning of the storming of Gawilghar he breakfasts with Kennedy, and talks about Hafiz, Saadi, Horace, and Anacreon.

The campaign being now over, General Wellesley was desirous of securing some permanent appointment for his secretary, and recommended him in the strongest terms to the Governor-General. The result was his appointment to the important post of Resident of Nagpoor, at the early age of twenty-four. The appointment was originally intended for Mr. Webbe, a Madras civilian, and Mr. Elphinstone was at first appointed to the temporary charge of our relations with the Mahhatta Court as Secretary to the Residency. The following passage occurs in a letter to Strachey of the 18th December, 1803 :—

"Afterwards the General told me he must get me to go to one or both of these fellows, S. and B.,* and wished me to pitch on the best for me with respect to a prospect of a Residency. I said I should like to go where there was most to do, and look afterwards for a place where all was settled. I have had more talk about this. Major M. and the General both recommend Nagpoor for speedy succession. I am almost ashamed to tell you my objection to it. I begin to wish for idleness, society, and ladies; and I dread being stationed long at a place where I shall be so solitary. Conceive what society there will be where people speak what they don't think in Moors. Of course I like being sent now. What I dread is my reward, a Residency, and a Secretaryship in the meantime. . . . One might study

* Sindia and Bqsla.

and live happily and philosophically in a small society, but that never is the case at a Residency. Gross people nautch and brutify, and others grumble and Ahirmanise.*"

The new Resident received his instructions on the 24th December, 1803, and took leave of his friends on the 28th December. And here we must take leave of him also for the present. His apprenticeship is over, and he is now launched on a career in which he will be thrown on his own resources in many difficult and delicate positions.

R. M. MACDONALD.

THE IMPORTANCE OF TECHNICAL INSTRUCTION IN INDIA.

Liebig rightly says: "The nation most quickly promoting the intellectual development of its industrial population must advance as surely as the country neglecting it must inevitably retrograde." The industrial paralysis of India is due, it can be safely said, to the frightful amount of ignorance betrayed by workmen and their masters in the technology of trade. To remedy this state of things is a subject of national importance. An effort is being made by a few Indian gentlemen to provide scientific instruction for selected students; but at present the scheme has not advanced far.

The superior training given to artisans and masters on the Continent has been considered one cause of the late depression of trade in England, and therefore a movement for Technical Instruction has arisen. The Royal Commission appointed in connection with this subject have recently issued their Report, in two volumes. Volume I. is divided into four parts; viz.:

(I.) Technical Education on the Continent. (II.) Visits to Industrial Establishments on the Continent. (III.) Visits to various Institutions in the United Kingdom. (IV.) Conclusion.

Part I. is subdivided into—1, Introductory Account of Primary and Secondary Schools; 2, Evening Schools available for Artisans; 3, Artisans' General Technical Schools, and Apprenticeship Schools; 4, Intermediate Technical Schools for Foremen and Technical Managers; 5, Women's Trade and Professional Schools; 6, Higher Technical Schools for Employers, Managers, &c.

Volume II. gives—1, Report on Agricultural Education;

* Ahirman (Ahriman) is the personification of evil in the system of Zoroaster.

2, Report on Technical Education in the United States. The mass of information furnished is valuable and suggestive, and will serve as an excellent guide to all interested in the question. I should like to see this Report, which costs only a few shillings, on the table of every library in India.

Technical instruction is regarded in India by some to be of no scientific value, and only adapted for labouring mechanics of humble origin. This is not to be wondered at, when we find that the word 'artisan,' from its ascertained unpopularity, is removed from the prospectus of the Liverpool School of Science. Similarly, a Technical School is generally understood to be a school of a different type from what it is. Professor Ayrton, of the City and Guilds of London Technical College, defines it as follows:—"By a Technical School I understand, not one in which the manipulation or routine of a trade is taught, but a School where a lad receives *general* instruction in the principles of applied science, and *special* instruction in the application of those principles to the particular trade he is following or about to follow."

The concise notices of the general condition of Primary and Secondary education of various nations with which the Commissioners preface their account bring home the fact that technical instruction forms part and parcel of the common education. Whatever is impressed early upon the mind of a child goes far towards adapting it for its future work. Thomas Twining, who has laboured with others to raise the condition of the industrial classes of England by imparting technical instruction, says in his excellent work, entitled *Technical Training*: "Success in manhood is greatly dependent on the care bestowed in developing and tempering the mind at an early age; and the way to improvement in Industrial Instruction must be prepared by measures establishing the Primary Education of the people on sound principles, so as to present a foundation at once broad and secure for any future intellectual superstructure."

It is of immense importance that primary education in India should be similar to that of other civilised countries. The use of tools, drawing, the rudiments of science, are taught in the Continental Primary Schools. We find from the Report that "instruction in the use of tools is now very general in the Primary Schools of Paris." Does this instruction form a feature in our Indian schools? No. And what is the result? A set of quilldrivers. We are living in a practical age. Whatever may be the line chalked out by a student for himself, the knowledge of tools is serviceable to him.

The Commissioners recommend, first of all, "that rudimentary drawing be incorporated with writing as a single elementary

subject, and that instruction in elementary drawing be continued throughout the standards." The importance of mechanical drawing is very great. In the discourse delivered by Professor Fleeming Jenkin, published in the *Journal of the Society of Arts*, the following passage occurs:—"The name of mechanical drawing is given to one and all those representations, the object of which is to enable a thing drawn to be made by a workman. Artistic drawing aims at representing agreeably something already in existence, or which might exist, and for the sake of representation. Mechanical drawing aims at representing the object, not for the sake of representation, but in order to facilitate the production of the thing represented. Now I say that it is this latter kind of drawing which is so vastly important to our artisans."

Science and manipulative skill should go hand to hand; and this we find is secured in the Primary and Secondary Schools abroad. Great value is attached to the workshop and laboratory practice of a student. Lectures are amply illustrated, and the student is required to conduct the experiments himself. A little knowledge of science greatly helps a man to understand the rationale of his trade. "The influence of such schools on the industrial condition of Switzerland is very conspicuous" are the words with which the Report concludes the notice of the Swiss Primary and Secondary Schools.

Again, the following passages occur in this valuable Report when it speaks of technical instruction in the United States:—"The Grammar Schools do not present any feature of interest in relation to industrial training, excepting in the drawing lessons, which are now compulsory in many cities in the Primary Grammar Schools. . . . Some attempt has been made in the Grammar Schools to introduce teaching of chemistry and physics in the most elementary stage, by the teachers making and explaining simple experiments. The High Schools have in most cases a Science side, as distinguished from the 'Latin' or 'English' side."

It has been said of a certain age, "People were too ignorant of science even to feel their ignorance." Are we in India too ignorant to feel our ignorance; or are we so advanced as to regard further progress uncalled for? I leave the misery of the country to answer. With all our learning and mastery over such subjects as medicine and law, the fields whereof are now overcrowded, what have we done? Have we added to the list of consumers or of producers? In order to prevent adverse criticism being passed on my advocating the system of familiarizing students with tools, drawing, &c., I support what I say with the opinions of acknowledged authorities in this matter.

Tyndall once said : "The facilities for scientific education are far greater on the Continent than in England ; and where such differences exist England is sure to fall behind as regards those industries into which the scientific element enters. In fact I have long entertained the opinion that, in virtue of the better education provided by Continental nations, England must one day—and that no distant one—find herself outstripped by those nations, both in the arts of peace and war." These words were spoken many years ago. England has since taken substantial measures to keep pace with the advance of other countries. What steps has India taken to make the scientific principles underlying trade widely known ? She is an agricultural country ; I may be told that she does not care for science other than that appertaining to agriculture. If so, I answer that England is a country for iron ; and why should she then trouble herself beyond shipping it abroad ? If a country abounds in raw materials, how absurd it is that they should be sent away in order to be returned in another shape ! Government has made several offers to purchase Indian-made articles by way of stimulating trade, but how sadly the country fails to make the most of the offers. To make a thing requires qualitative study, but to render its making a commercial success involves quantitative study besides. The latter indispensably demands general familiarity with science.

The following resolution is to be seen in the *Society of Arts Journal* for 13th August, 1869, on a Parliamentary motion by Dr. Lyon Playfair : "That in any scheme for National Education the Revised Code should not limit State aid in elementary schools to the subjects of reading, writing, and arithmetic, but should also offer inducements for the study of such subjects of elementary science and art as bear upon the occupations of the people and tend to the advancement of industry."

On the Continent the elementary and secondary education is given either gratuitously or on taking nominal fees. Education, especially primary, is compulsory. The ordinary schools of France are reported to excel those of England. In reference to education in Germany, the Report says : "Secondary instruction of a superior and systematic kind is placed within the reach of children of parents of limited means, to an extent of which we can form no conception in this country." In Belgium parents can demand that their children shall be gratuitously educated. In Holland the total cost of primary education in 1880 was reported to be £800,000 for a population of about four millions. Of this cost £100,000 only is said to be collected from fees. The Secondary Schools there are non-classical.

I now come to Technical Schools. To drive an engine or to

fit it up does not amount to engineering. An engineer should know "the reason why," and calculate beforehand what would be the consumption, and what would be the return. If he be in charge of an engine, he should know, for economical working, that the draught let into the furnace is neither less nor more than what is essential. Should it be less, carbon is wasted in the form of smoke; should it be in excess, carbon monoxide is carried out before it combines with the oxygen of the air, thus wasting heat. To arrange matters right in this and similar cases, some amount of chemical knowledge is necessary. Again, an engineer's knowledge of the fly-wheel should go beyond the well-known fact that it is made use of to preserve uniformity of speed. He has to look to the greatest alteration of speed, and the greatest fluctuation of energy, and he has to introduce such modification as the change of circumstances, in case of change, renders necessary. We now no longer neglect friction as we used formerly to do. It constitutes an important factor. The idea of how much loss takes place through friction can be well realised by comparing the case of a car on rails and on an ordinary road. The co-efficient of friction being many times less in the case of iron on iron, than of iron on an ordinary road, a single horse is able to pull the considerable weight of a tram-car. Mechanics teaches all these matters. Besides being a good hand at tools, a mechanical engineer should know, therefore, Chemistry, Physics, Mechanics, and Mathematics. Let us take the case of an electric engineer. If he simply drives the engine, he is no other than a driver. Since he has to deal with heavy machinery, his knowledge both of Theoretical and Practical Mechanics must be advanced; also, since he has to work with accumulators and batteries, he should know something of chemistry. He has many important calculations to make; consequently, he must be up in mathematics. I have seen a frightful amount of ignorance betrayed by some of the so-called practical engineers in the rudiments of knowledge. They have, in consequence, damaged costly machines and worked uneconomically. The importance of winding a watch punctually for securing its regularity is known amongst watch-makers; but I think few understand the reason of the importance. Do they know the mathematics of springs? and can they account for the paradoxical phenomenon that a watch goes slower when it is wound up, and faster as it gets more and more unwound? The result of this general ignorance is, that we see watch repairers and not watch-makers. If anything requires to be altered or mended, there goes an order by the English mail, as if the matter were comprehended only by giant heads of the other world. Where ignorance rules, this is natural.

The system of employing mechanics as managers of mills is being introduced in India. This is a step forward certainly, but not altogether in the right direction. The manager's knowledge should not be confined to the fitting up of machinery, but he must be familiar with as many branches of science as are underlying the industry. Nautical science has no connection with the steam engine; but the Admiralty has acknowledged the need that a captain of a war-vessel should be familiar with the theory of the engine. A master is no master until he masters this. The Report runs: "Prof. Von Helmholtz pointed out to the Commissioners, not only the general advantage but the absolute economy of employing persons as heads of departments conversant with the theory of their work, and able, by virtue of their scientific knowledge, to anticipate results, and to calculate beforehand the quantity and quality of material required, as compared with those who, failing this knowledge, are compelled to adopt, often at greatly increased cost, the empirical method of repeated trial." To place a business in charge of an European head is not an absolute guarantee of success. An officer selected by a commissioned agent on the strength of testimonials has been very often found inefficient. Once, the head of the only mill of a certain industry in Bombay was an European. The mill under his management could not pay even its running expenses, and the business, consequently, was pronounced to be a failure. One of the proprietors, having fortunately had acquaintance with the industry, insisted upon the business being continued, and the management being transferred to him. The mill is still in existence. Others have disappeared, though some of them had a better start. This reminds us of the historical fact of an Emperor taking the command himself, and turning the balance of victory in his favour, on hearing the officer commanding to say that he lost the day. If the Emperor had not been a general, the problem he would have discussed would have been how to retreat. We see, then, success is ensured, if the head is up in the scientific detail of the business.

To provide instruction adapted to requirements of all classes engaged in trade is the aim of Technical Schools. With this object in view, the City Livery Companies have established the City and Guilds of London Institute. It gives liberal grants to University College, King's College, and other institutes, for the purpose of providing technical instruction in the metropolis and provincial manufacturing towns. The formation of evening classes in Technology in the industrial centres has been assisted. These evening classes are reported to have become nuclei of Technical Colleges. In London two

Colleges have been established by the Institute: Finsbury Technical College, at a cost of £36,000, and a Central Institution at South Kensington, estimated to cost £95,000. At the first, with which I am best acquainted, technical instruction is given both day and evening. There are five departments: Mechanical Engineering, Electrical Engineering, Industries involving applications of Chemistry, Building Trades, Applied Art Industries. The subjects are: Mathematics (Pure and Applied), Practical Mechanics, Chemistry, Physics, Electrical Technology, Freehand, Model, and Machine Drawing, Workshop Practice, French and German; and in the evening additional classes are held in Carpentry and Joinery, Metal Plate Work, Bricklaying, Drawing, Painting, Modelling, and Design. Fees: Annual payment, £9 in one sum, £10 in three instalments. The evening students have to pay from 5s. to 30s. No extra charge is made for chemicals, &c. The laboratory is well equipped, and the workshop is well furnished. Elementary and advanced courses are formed. Steam and gas engines, also heavy machines of various descriptions, are provided. The building is electrically illuminated. Theoretical instruction goes hand-to-hand with practical. Great value is attached to the student's practical work in the laboratory and workshop. A student, consequently, from this College does not find himself in a new world when called upon to work outside the College. Though he has to study various subjects, he is not allowed to appear in more than one subject. In order to test his thorough efficiency, he is further required to specialise one of the branches into which the subject is divided. To gain pass-marks by touching the subject here and there, while the whole field is thrown open, is easy; but when it has been narrowly contracted, the question of passing becomes a question of thorough familiarity with a subject in its theoretical, practical, mechanical, and mathematical detail.—The Central Institution will serve as a focus for uniting the different technical schools. As on the Continent, this institution is built near a Museum, that of South Kensington, so that students can have easy access to a collection of machinery and other industrial objects. It is intended to afford practical scientific instruction, qualifying persons to become technical teachers, mechanical, civil, electrical, chemical, and sanitary engineers, architects, builders, principals, superintendents, and managers. The fees will be £30 per annum. It will be opened in January next. An entrance examination will be held for four days in Physics, Mechanics, Mathematics, Drawing, &c., and will be open to all persons who are not less than 16 years of age.

To give even a very short account of similar instruction, more or less theoretical, given by the Science and Art Depart-

ment and other institutions in the United Kingdom, would occupy too much space.

Excellent arrangements for similar instruction, day and evening, are to be found on the Continent. Speaking of the higher elementary technical schools in France, where mathematics, science and drawing constitute the main subjects of instruction, the Commissioners write: "*The classical languages do not enter into the curriculum of any of these schools. The time thus saved is devoted to mathematics and to modern languages.*" Instruction in these French schools is gratuitous. Secondary Technical Schools, which serve as finishing schools, are to be seen in many countries of the Continent. The mathematical knowledge of the student is carried here up to the differential and integral calculus. In the Secondary Technical School of Winterthür, in Switzerland, where instruction in mechanical engineering, civil engineering, building construction, chemistry, commerce, and industrial art is given, the annual fee is £2 8s. For imparting the highest technical education we see excellent provision made on the Continent. There are in every country a number of weaving schools, with museums of textiles and models, where not only the master, the foreman, or the designer learns his art, but knowledge of textiles and their construction is thoroughly given to merchants, agents, distributors, and shopkeepers as well. We see apprenticeship and many other schools. In order to encourage original scientific research, an excellent institution is founded in France, divided into mathematical, physical, chemical, and other sections, providing teaching laboratories and research laboratories. Admission of students, which is gratuitous, is not restricted on account of age or nationality, if satisfaction as to ability for learning and fitness for carrying research is given. Popular lectures directly bearing on the industry of the place are gratuitously delivered. Scientific libraries and museums are thrown open free.

The evidence of an English manager, recorded by the Commissioners as follows, goes to show how technical teaching tends to revolutionize:—"Germany thirty years ago, as compared with England, was simply 'nowhere;' but, placing English and German workshops side by side now, we should find that the progress in the latter had been positively marvellous. During all these years the Germans had been following the English step by step, importing their machinery and tools, engaging, when they could, the best men from the best shops, copying their methods of work and the organization of their industries; but, besides this, they had devoted special attention to a matter which England had almost ignored—the scientific or technical instruction of their own people. And what has been the result

of all this? They have reached a point at which they have but little to learn from the English. He called our attention to a fact, which had not escaped our observation before, that nowadays there are scarcely any Englishmen to be found at the head of German workshops." I could quote several such passages as showing that technical instruction, when systematically and widely imparted, forms the principal factor in raising the condition of a country.

Now I come to the most important point, the expense towards this instruction. From the Report we find that it has been borne by the State, the Municipality, and Trade Associations. "In the United Kingdom," the Report says, "the cost of the instruction of artisans in science and art is almost entirely borne by the State." I cannot help quoting the memorable words with which the first volume of the Report ends: "Of course, in a country where trade and manufactures already exist under flourishing circumstances, State-aided instruction of the nature we have described is far less needed than in those countries where the occupations of the population are mainly agricultural, or where industry is in a backward or declining condition."

An appeal to the Indian Government is necessary. No time could be better selected than the present. It is the duty of the *Sabha*, the Association, the press, and the leaders of the Society to take this matter up. When England has done so much for herself, she would not hesitate, if the representation be unanimously made, to open the Indian treasury for the purpose. Mere modification in primary and secondary education will not effect the purpose. Though scientific instruction on a more advanced scale is given here and abroad, the necessity for Technical Colleges has been felt. If the importance of this is recognised, I hope not only one Technical College in one corner will be established, but many Colleges, working both during day and evening, with Technological Museums and free Scientific Libraries, be opened. "When the object is to raise the permanent condition of a people, small means do not merely produce small effects; they produce no effect at all," says John Stuart Mill. The native princes will in no better way raise the condition of the people over whom they rule than by adopting the measures which the civilized world has adopted.

No policy is so good as that which raises the condition of people; thus order and discipline are to be seen where peace and plenty reign, in place of quarrels and fighting, giving trouble to society and government, where the case is reversed. No charity is so well directed as the charity which enables a man to earn his bread honestly and independently. No philanthropy is so great as that which relieves a man from the present enormous

drudgery which characterises service, because the supply is greater than the poor demand.

Through the labours of Dr. Sirkar an Institution has been established in Calcutta, where scientific problems will be discussed. Such institutions are really valuable. The delivery of free popular lectures, under the auspices of different associations, at the Framji Cowasji Institute and the David Sassoon's Institute, in Bombay, is also a matter of great satisfaction. At the former there is a small but excellent collection of apparatus. Could not this, I venture to ask, be made use of for forming an evening class? The Secretary is himself a scientific man, and I hope he will consider the suggestion. The question of technical training affects the whole country, so that movement in all directions is necessary. I hope this important subject will be kept prominently before the public mind till Technical Education becomes general in India.

ARDASHEER BURJORJI MASTER,

Foreign Mem. of the Society of Tel. Engineers.

LONDON, *August, 1884.*

THE SEA AS A PROFESSION FOR EDUCATED NATIVES.

The doubt has again and again been raised as to whether as a race the natives of India are capable of holding their own in any employment where intrepidity and courage are essential to success. It may safely be asserted that if not in the whole country, in certain provinces at any rate, notably the sea-board tracts, there are hardy tribes who can, under proper direction and treatment, be easily shaped into men of undaunted spirit. To the reproach which is sometimes made against particular classes of the Indian people, that they are effeminate, it may be sufficient answer to say, in the words of a gallant naval officer, that "we are all naturally cowards; education and observation teach us to discriminate between real and apparent danger; pride teaches the concealment of fear; and habit renders us indifferent to that from which we have often escaped with impunity. It is related of the Great Frederick that he misbehaved the first time he went into action; and it is certain that a novice in such a situation can no more command all his resources than a boy when first bound apprentice to a shoemaker can make a pair of shoes. We must learn our trade, whether it be to stand steady before the enemy or to stitch a boot; practice alone can

make a Hoby or a Wellington." This is true; it is the physical and moral surroundings of men that shape their course in life; it is the particular training men undergo that renders them timid as a hare or brave as a lion. There were troublous periods in the history of our country when times seemed out of joint, when the necessities of the times produced men of great enterprise and daring, a recital of whose deeds is enough to stir one's blood to action. Heaven forbid that we should see such days again; but should the economy of Providence demand that the same indomitable spirit of our ancestors should animate us for service—not in the cause of war and bloodshed, but in that of angelic peace—the same land, under favourable circumstances, would again bring to the front men who could be depended on for similar achievements in the battle-field of industry and commerce. Fearlessness, like any other virtue, is contagious for good; the one thing needful is to create the circumstances, and then to allow Nature to work her course.

The question arises, Is there a sphere where this quality can be developed in the cause of a peaceful vocation? It appears to me that the profession of a sailor affords such a field. Trusting one's self to the wide, wide ocean on the mission of peaceful commerce is an employment new, at least, to the intelligent portion of our people, and the proverbial dangers of the deep are likely to deter many from venturing on such a hazardous life; nevertheless, it is an opening affording full scope for drawing out the resources of the mind and for steeling the heart against danger in times of peril. It would school one's nature into self-reliance, a virtue of which the Indian nation at the present time stands in great need; ennoble the mind and widen the sympathies of the heart, just as the vast expanse of the sky above and the waters below must awaken thoughts surpassing any that can be conceived within the walls of a house. Nay more, the navigator would be brought into contact with nations of all degrees of civilization, whose manners and customs—social, religious, and political—whose institutions, wealth, and prosperity cannot but have a wholesome effect on his mind. The struggle for existence is becoming keener and keener every day amongst all classes of the native community, and the higher professions are blocked up. New avenues of employment have to be found, and for such as have pluck a seafaring life offers an opening. A good deal of preparation, discipline, and apprenticeship are, however, necessary, and the ice has to be broken, as no serious attempts have hitherto been made, to my knowledge, in this direction. We have it on the authority of an eminent native scholar and antiquarian that in the Vedic period and for some time afterwards the Hindus were familiar with

ships adapted for sea voyages, and carried on commerce over the main. In later times, and in Western India, we have Angria and his followers, who once sorely harassed the Habshi and the English at sea, displaying the same bravery and contempt of danger on the waters as Shivaji and his sturdy soldiers exhibited on land. These, however, never ventured much beyond the sea coast, and I allude here to their exploits merely to point out that had these men the knowledge of navigation which the Arabs, for instance, possessed, and had caste and religious prejudices not come in their way, there was no lack of courage to prevent them from crossing the seas. To this date native mariners on this side, composed of Marathas, Koli fishermen and Gujerathi Nakhmas, and the Mahomedan Lascars, confine their operations to the coast, the Hindus manning their craft themselves, and never forming a mixed crew with others. As steam ferries multiply, these men must in course of time seek other than their ancestral trade. Necessity has already forced the Hindu Nakhmas of Surat to take service in ocean steamers with Mussulman fellow-seamen. As steam is destined to supersede sailing vessels, our mariners must be prepared for a revolution in their profession. The native seamen who have already ventured beyond the sea-coast have no reason to regret their choice. They have proved equal to the task. Many years' experience has now shown the principal European shipping companies in India that natives are not only first-class seamen, but seamen equal, and in some respects superior, to the jolly tars of England, whom they have been gradually supplanting, so far as the ocean trade with India is concerned, and this notwithstanding that their employment in preference to Europeans is costlier. The native sailors, it is said, have proved that with a generous diet and proper clothing their physical powers of endurance, in whatever climate, can be put to the severest test. Their high efficiency in the Northern latitudes has been spoken of in eulogistic terms; and in matters of discipline, as well as by action in times of danger, they have hitherto well maintained their ground. When discussion was rife, about the end of the year 1881, as to the necessity for employing European sailors to man lifeboats in case of accident in the Bombay harbour in the event of a cyclone visiting the port, an Englishman of considerable experience in these matters bore this flattering testimony publicly as to how natives are capable of acting in stormy weather:—"The men," he said, "are quite as able as any in the world to handle their boats skilfully in any weather. I have myself had a vast amount of experience in connection with boat work, both with European and native crews, and I have not the slightest hesitation in

saying that my choice would fall upon our regular crews of Koli fishermen if I happened to go myself in charge of life-boats." So much for the capabilities and powers of endurance of native seamen. These men have hitherto occupied the lowest position on board ship, the lowest rating held being that of Lascar, rising by grades to Tindals, Sukhanis, and Sarangs,* which last rating is the highest to which they can aspire at present. The monthly wages, with free rations, vary from Rs. 12 to a maximum of Rs. 37, the pay of the Sarang.

What is needed now is an opening in this line to enable men of greater intelligence to qualify for the post of executive officers. With an ordinary English education, the brave youths of India—Hindus, Parsis, or Mahomedans—can in a few years, after the necessary sea service, gain the requisite amount of knowledge in the art of seamanship and navigation, and acquire the position of officers on board ships. Critics would no doubt be found ready to pooh pooh the notion of entrusting the charge of a ship to a native. In times of danger, they would urge, the Indians display a sad want of resources, and require to be led by their European superiors. This may be true, but the cause of this is not far to seek. The men, as I have said before, are not deficient in courage; but they are certainly without any intellectual training, possess very vague ideas of responsibility, and not having read or heard of the stirring deeds of men at sea in ancient or modern times, in the moment of great uncertainty and imminent peril their imagination is not perhaps easily fired to deeds of heroism. Presence of mind under circumstances of peril does not come of courage alone. The resources of the mind cannot be drawn out fully without some general education, special training, observation, and, above all, association. Hitherto those who have benefited largely by the employment of native seamen have not devoted much attention to the subject of training up natives in the higher branches of a sailor's profession; and at the present day, officered as ships are by Europeans, no facilities exist for educated natives to compete in that direction, on account of the obvious social difficulties. Free competition, however, must eventually open up a way for them in this as in other lines, and I would commend the idea for development to such bodies as the Board of Trade in England and the Chambers of Commerce in India. The steady and sober character of the natives, their amenability to discipline, their devotion to duty when trusted, all combine to fit them in the highest degree for posts of responsibility.

To my countrymen of the middle class, from whom alone we can expect the rank of officers to be recruited, I have only to add that the day is not far distant when all notions of following a quiet,

easy, and comfortable profession, fostered by education and long association, must be gradually given up. Competition is growing fiercer, and necessity has already forced educated young men to seek employments in workshops. Daintier notions of work are yielding to the dignity of labour. The truth is being realized that the commonest vocation in life has its useful purpose in the economy of the world, and that a life of comparative ease is in the long run suicidal to society. It would indeed be a dark outlook for the development of the productive resources of this vast continent if any other ideas than these took a hold of the national mind. European history, and notably the history of the United States, teaches us that the prosperity of those peoples is due in a large measure to the estimation in which physical labour is held among them. The greatest men in the West, who by their inventions and discoveries have enriched the world, rose from the ranks of the hard workers, who spent their youth and manhood under the sternest discipline possible. To such discipline and hard work our rising generation should be accustomed betimes; and such discipline, in the highest acceptation of the term, is afforded on board a ship for a man possessing strong nerves and prepared to endure hardship. The prejudices of caste and the dangers of the sea to be encountered may be urged as hindrances to natives taking to this profession. To the Hindu barristers, doctors, engineers, and merchants who have crossed the seas caste has generally ceased to be a terror, and the man who seriously considers the question, and has the pluck to become a sailor, will certainly not be cowed by its terrors. As to the risks of a sea life, it is not so much their frequency as the horrors of an occasional shipwreck or fire at sea that create the panic. There are accidents on land as at sea, both avoidable and unavoidable; but much of the loss at sea appears from the published accounts to be due to neglect and to unskilful navigation. With the progress of education and science, and with the numerous approved appliances of the present day, the chances of avoidable accidents at sea are greatly minimized.

The love of adventure and fame is common to humanity all over the world; and if the army can find its recruits among the truant native youths who fly from their homes for the glories of the field, and by their career add lustre to British arms, then it cannot be seriously maintained that germs are wanting for the development in India of naval officers who could be trusted on the seas. At a Meeting of the Social Science Congress in England, the late Sir Muttu Coomara-Swamy, of Ceylon, expressed a hope that the time would come when a Hindu crew, commanded by a Hindu captain, should steam into New York

or London in a steamer built by Hindus in Bombay or Calcutta. Ocean steamers built entirely by natives have been the admiration of European nations in times past, and we have hopes, with the eminent patriot quoted above, of seeing his ideas about native captains crossing the main realized, under the fostering care and training of the British, whom Providence has appointed to raise India in the scale of nations. Greater conceptions have before this been realized for ameliorating the condition of the people of this land.

A. RAM KRISHNA.

Bombay.

MEDICAL WOMEN FOR INDIA.

The Jaffer Suleiman Medical Dispensary for Women was opened on July 7th in a temporary building erected near the Crawford Market. About a dozen patients attended the Dispensary on the first morning. The numbers very soon increased to 200, and the institution thus promises to be very useful. A plot of ground near the present shed has been granted by the Government for a permanent building, to be commenced probably after the rains. The *Bombay Gazette* adds: "It is satisfactory to note that Dr. Edith Pechey, who is placed in charge of this Dispensary, has already secured a fairly good practice among women belonging to all classes of the native community."

Mrs. K. Ganguli, B.A., who is studying medicine at the Calcutta Medical College, has been awarded a scholarship of Rs. 20 monthly, tenable for five years at that college. The following is the official communication respecting this scholarship from the Officiating Under-Secretary to the Government of Bengal, to the Director of Public Instruction, dated Darjiling, June 25th, 1884: "I am directed to acknowledge the receipt of your letter, No. 86r, dated the 10th June, 1884, and enclosure; and in reply to say that, in addition to the scholarships granted to the female medical students named in paragraph 5 of the Government Resolution of the 6th May, 1884, the Lieutenant-Governor sanctions the grant to Mrs. Kadumbini Ganguli, B.A., of a scholarship of Rs. 20 a month, tenable for five years in the Calcutta Medical College, with retrospective effect from the 15th June, 1883."

The Kolapore Albert Edward Hospital, built in honour of

H.R.H. the Prince of Wales' visit to India, was opened on July 3rd, at the request of the Kolapore Durbar, by Colonel Reeves, in the presence of the Maharaja, the Ranis, the Regent, and many Sirdars, as well as European and native gentlemen and ladies of the place. It was announced by Colonel Reeves that the Durbar intends to open a class for female pupils. The building is said to be the most splendid yet erected in the Mofussil. On another public occasion Colonel Reeves made the following remarks, after speaking of the increasing demand for education in Western India for boys: "I wish I could say as much about the education of your women-kind. I wish I could see an earnest movement towards the abolition of infant marriages, coupled with a general determination to keep your daughters at school until they had really learnt something, so that, if it became necessary, they might assist in supporting their families. During the past few months it has been really lamentable to observe the haste with which numbers of respectable native gentlemen, from whom one might have expected better things, have married off their daughters. Nearly every one with whom I have spoken admits the folly of the step, but all plead the custom of the country or the iron rule of their caste. Let me entreat every educated and influential man in this hall, who is listening to me, to do his best to persuade some girl of his acquaintance, some one of the many young widows in this and neighbouring towns, to join our training classes with a view to becoming a school-mistress or following some other profession. Why should they not do so? Think of the enormous benefit you would bestow upon a number of your fellow-country-women who are at present living an aimless and objectless life! Supposing, for example, several hundred, or for the matter of that, several thousand, women were to follow Miss Pechey's noble example and become medical practitioners, what an amount of human suffering would be relieved, and how many lives might be saved amongst women who now for various reasons will not call in a doctor! It is quite shocking to think of the number of deaths from preventible causes which are constantly occurring in this very neighbourhood. In America we read that women are entering almost every profession, and are doing well; in many instances they are found better adapted for the work than men. In the Treasury alone, I noticed

somewhere, that one of the Ministers of State had employed a thousand women, with excellent results."

In the late Examination at the Grant Medical College, Bombay, a young Parsee lady was at the head of the list of successful candidates. Out of the thirteen female students who presented themselves, only three passed.

SOCIAL AND PHILANTHROPIC INSTITUTIONS IN THE WEST.

X.—THE LONDON HOSPITAL, MILE-END, LONDON.

A visitor to the capital of Great Britain, bent on studying some of its philanthropic institutions, is always struck with the admirable way in which most of these are managed. Receiving no aid from Government, they are entirely supported by voluntary contributions, and are the means of doing good to the countless poor. If it were not for such institutions, these persons would be left to their own resources. Among the institutions which thus help the cause of the suffering poor, the Hospitals of London stand out pre-eminent. To keep up such establishments, and to defray the necessary expenses, an enormous sum of money is required. For this purpose an appeal is from time to time made to the public, and I am pleased to observe it is not made in vain. Large sums are contributed towards the maintenance of these useful institutions. Hence it is that a foreigner often reads in English newspapers of Hospital Saturdays and Hospital Sundays. On such Sundays collections are made in the churches of all denominations, and on the Saturdays by boxes placed in workshops and in public places, and the sums thus collected are distributed among the various hospitals. Sometimes benevolent persons bequeath thousands of pounds to hospitals, and, in consequence, some of the wards are named after them. Hence, a visitor to the wards of the hospital sees such inscriptions as—"To commemorate the munificent gift of —, the first President or Governor."

In order that the readers of the *Journal* in India may know how the Hospitals are managed, a description of one of the largest in Great Britain is given here.

The London Hospital was established in the year 1740, when a few benevolent persons opened a small Infirmary in Featherstone Street. The founders of the Infirmary had to remove from this locality to Prescott Street, Goodman's Fields, and in 1757 a

portion of the present building was opened. Soon afterwards the Governors were incorporated by a Royal Charter. The west wing was opened in 1831, the east wing in 1842, the Alexandra wing in 1866, and the Grocers' Company's wing in March, 1876.

An idea may be formed of the progress of the Hospital from the fact that, while in the first eighteen months of its existence it received only 127 in-patients and 2,188 out-patients, the registers of the twelve months ending 31st, December, 1883, show a total of 7,388 in-patients (exclusive of 588 remaining under treatment at the beginning of the year) and of 64,256 out-patients. On account of its position in the neighbourhood of docks, factories, and workshops, the London Hospital is, perhaps, one of the largest accident hospitals in the world. During 1883 the total of accident cases was 8,317, of which 2,534 were admitted into the wards.

The daily average of patients resident in the Hospital during 1883 was 628, while as many as 694 patients have been at one time in the house. The London Hospital contains 800 beds, approximately allotted thus, namely:—

For accidents and surgical cases	334
For medical cases	300
For diseases of women...	26
For children under seven years of age	68
For ophthalmic cases	12
Out-door wards	60
<hr/>			
Total	800

Increased accommodation proved necessary, and a sum of £100,000 was collected to build a new wing. The Grocers' Company having given £25,000, it was resolved that the new wing should be called the Grocers' Company's Wing. The foundation-stone was laid on June 27th, 1874, and on March 7th, 1876, Her Majesty the Queen attended in person to open it, and named some of the wards. The addition of this new wing raised the total of beds to 800.

Such is the history of the Hospital. Now as regards its internal arrangements. In order that patients may be properly taken care of, there is a large number of nurses. There are 150 nurses and 20 sisters; some of the nurses are probationers. At their head is a Matron, who is responsible for the satisfactory condition of the wards. The nursing arrangements at the London Hospital are admirable. Those who have visited the wards of this hospital are aware of the kind treatment they receive, so that the courtesy and kindness of the London Hospital nurses may be

said to be almost proverbial. For the medical care of all the patients there are twelve visiting Physicians and eight visiting Surgeons, besides a resident staff of fourteen Medical or Surgical officers, who carry out the directions of the senior staff, and have the charge of the patients in their absence.

The wards of this Hospital deserve special notice. There is nothing showy about them, but they are perfect models of simplicity. The floors are wooden, and here and there the walls are decorated with wooden frames containing some comforting texts from the Holy Scriptures, pleasing mottoes, or short poems. Everything in the wards is so nicely arranged and so scrupulously clean that patients as well as visitors must feel that they are in some well-conducted house, rather than in the wards of a public hospital. Great credit is therefore due to the Matron, who, as I have said before, is responsible for the condition of the wards. I have spoken above about the physical welfare of the patients. I will now briefly refer to their spiritual care. There is a Chaplain, assisted by two Scripture readers. Patients of the Roman Catholic persuasion have their own ministers. But there is another wise provision made by the authorities for Jewish patients. These have separate wards and their own kitchen, and they have religious services conducted according to the principles of the Hebrew religion.

The cost for each fully-occupied bed was during the year 1883, £65 8s. 10½d. The daily cost for each in-patient during the same year was 3s. 7d. So much for the occupied beds and patients. The cooking is done by steam and gas. This saves the money spent in fuel; and what is more advantageous is that this system diminishes the labour. The following items of expense may prove interesting:

		£	s.	d.
Bread	1,336	8	5
Meat	6,709	11	6
Milk	2,529	8	9
Eggs	907	10	10
Potatoes, and other vegetables		741	14	10
Fish	497	6	5

There are many other expenses, too numerous to be mentioned here; but it will be sufficient to state that the whole expense for the year 1883 was £83,345 19s. 9d.

It often happens that patients are obliged to quit their situations when they are admitted into the hospital, and when recovered they are sometimes without any means whatever. To assist such patients a Society, called the Samaritan Society, was established, in connection with the London Hospital, in the year

1791, at the suggestion of the late Sir W. Blizzard. This Society aids the patients by providing them with money, linen, and other necessary things. When occasion requires, the Society sends them to convalescent homes in the country. 857 patients of this kind were thus sent to various homes during the past year. It will thus be seen that everything which will make the patients comfortable is done. All this kindness cannot be lost on the patients, and I am sure that they must feel grateful for all the attentions that they receive.

There is a Medical School attached to the Hospital. The teaching is of a high order, and students are prepared for all the principal examinations of London. At some of these examinations the number of successful candidates from this College is really marvellous. Any information about the College will be given by the Warden, Mr. Munro Scott, whose kindness to foreign students deserves to be praised. A word about the British students of this Hospital. They have made themselves popular among students from other parts of the world by their polite behaviour, their kindness, and their willingness to give any advice in times of difficulty. I wish space had permitted me to mention the names of several eminent Physicians and Surgeons attached to this Hospital and to this College. They are eminent because they have not only distinguished themselves in this noble profession, but also because their names are familiar to all the students of medicine throughout the civilised world.

I cannot bring this description to a close without thanking the Secretary, Mr. Haggard, for furnishing me with the necessary particulars. He will supply full information to anyone desirous of becoming more fully acquainted with the working of the Hospital. If by reading this article the readers of this *Journal in India* get an idea of the useful work of that noble institution, the writer will feel amply rewarded.

B. S. M.

HIGHER EDUCATION FOR WOMEN IN INDIA.

The following letter in the *Times of India*, from Mr. Sakharum Arjum, and the letter which appeared in the same paper from Miss Pechey, M.D., are well worthy of consideration outside as well as within the Bombay Presidency, by those who have seriously at heart an improved training for Indian girls:

To the Editor of "The Times of India."

SIR,—The subject of high female education amongst natives has lately attracted considerable attention, and the capital of the Deccan has taken a practical step, which promises to be the starting-point for the regeneration of the daughters of India. But if Poona needs an institution like the one proposed to be started, is it too much to say that the need of Bombay is more urgent and general? I propose to appeal to such of the native gentlemen as have had the benefit and the blessing of higher English education, and to try, as far as I may, to enlist not only their sympathies, but active co-operation in ameliorating the condition of what are, alas! conventionally called our better halves. I do not pretend to propound novel theories nor bring forward new arguments. I simply propose to glance at the condition of our women, and indicate, though roughly, the direction in which it can be improved.

A time there was when a few energetic and public-spirited men, enjoying the blessings of education, worked with might and main in fighting against ignorance and prejudice, and in introducing female education amongst us. The names of men like Dr. Bhau Daji, Messrs. Dadabhai Naoroji, Nowrojee Furdoonjee and Sorabjee Shapoorjee Bengalee will shine with lustre, and will be remembered with gratitude when the social history of Bombay comes to be written. The fruits which their laudable efforts have borne are seen in the ever-increasing number of girls' schools, and the still more increasing number of students. Idle fears and foolish prophecies greeted the first efforts of these reformers, but happily these fears have been dissipated, and prophecies falsified by the result; and it is no exaggeration to say that, in the middle and higher classes at least, there is hardly any family which does not gladly avail itself of the girls' schools. But the mantle of these pioneers of female education has fallen (if it can be said to have fallen at all) on us, who are more fond of airing our eloquence than of persistently and patiently working in their footsteps. The indifference latterly shown towards the elevation of the female part of our community is almost inexplicable, or at least defies a complete rational explanation. It may be that the unusual activity of the early reformers has been succeeded by the lethargy and apathy on the part of the present generation, or that the struggle for life is more keen, and leisure and energy less available now than before, or that we have been getting more and more materialized every year. Whatever the cause, the fact is patent that the question of bettering the condition of our women is put on one side as if it were a matter of no serious

consideration. This seems the more strange, as the importance of the subject would be readily acknowledged by every one of us who has had the happiness of receiving the higher University education.

But let us glance at our domestic life, though it is a delicate subject to touch. Most of us have become alive to the evils which afflict our society, and render our domestic life a life of discomfort, if not of actual misery. We realise, with a keenness unknown to our fathers, the misery entailed by early and late marriages, by the absence of widow marriages, the baneful effect of caste, the rank superstition and ignorance which reign supreme in our households. We are also painfully aware that our efforts in eradicating old evils and in sowing new blessings; that our attempts at reforms, social and religious, which we believe to be fraught with immense good for generations to come, are baffled and foiled by opposition encountered, not on the public platform or the native press, but in the bosom of our own families. How many of our vaunted reformers have had to eat their own utterances, to meekly practise in private what they eloquently denounced in public, because their wives and mothers, sisters and cousins, have been too strong for them! This being the state of things, can we conscientiously say that we have been trying to fill up the mental gap which divides us from those who are so dear and near to us? We strive hard to rise in the scale of humanity; we are ambitious of distinguishing ourselves at the bar or on the bench; our aspirations are not satisfied until we enter the Council, both local and supreme; we are unremitting in our efforts to extort privilege after privilege from our enlightened rulers; we wax eloquent as we expatiate on our national liberty, the liberty of the press, and the liberty of local self-government. We successfully dispute with Englishmen their superiority in intellectual achievements, and excite their wonder by the keenness and erudition of our discussions in politics and philosophy. But while we direct our energies to channels like these, do we not, as of set purpose, shut our better halves from that "sweetness and light" which, as the great apostle of culture, Mr. Matthew Arnold, says, is absolutely necessary for the perfection of humanity? While nothing is too high for our intellectual grasp, or political ambition, we seem to think that in the case of our women "ignorance is bliss, and it is folly for them to be wise." Though we have happily outlived the old orthodox estimate of women as useful animals of burden, would not the more refined opinion we still hold of them, if analyzed, be anything but flattering? If we do not any longer regard them in the old brutal way, are not our feelings towards them compounded of pity and contempt? We pet and indulge

them, like playthings, because in certain matters they minister to our comfort and pleasure, but are we ever guilty of consulting them or expecting sound advice from them on any serious or important matters? Do we really believe that the mere smattering of learning given to our girls in the vernacular schools is sufficient for the regeneration of India? These schools have been doing good in their own way, but shall we stop here in the case of our women, when not only we, but everything around us, is rapidly advancing? Those gentlemen who worked for the establishment of these schools were wise in their generation, and attempted only what was feasible in the backward times when they worked. To have attempted more in the then state of society would have been suicidal, and the surest way of helping prejudice and ignorance to foil the object they had most at heart. They expected their successors to progress with the times; but in standing still, are we not undoing what they have done? For is it not a fact that nine out of every ten unlearn, as *wives* and *mothers*, what they learnt as *girls*? But even if they retained in after-life what they picked up at these primary schools, will that help them much to become efficient *wives* and *mothers*? I am afraid not. They want that higher education which should develop and inform their minds, should enable them not only to dissipate their prejudice and superstition, but to curb the violence of their emotions; should implant in them love of knowledge and independence; should make them follow settled principles of action, and not be victims of every varying impulse; should render them capable of taking a rational interest in, and of showing an intelligent sympathy with, the aspirations of their husbands, sons and brothers.

This is not a Utopian ideal to realize if we would but take proper steps to accomplish it. If we would rise in the scale of nations, if we would do away with the many deep-rooted evils which eat up the very core of our society, if we would surround our domestic life with real and rational happiness, we must raise our women to our level. They must be our equals not in name, but in reality. A little knowledge of English, with a readiness to drive out, after the English fashion, with their husbands, and willingness to mix in European society, may be good in their way; but they do not constitute the higher education that is to be imparted. Our women require that education which will make them intelligent citizens, helping wives, and learned mothers. Science teaches us that children partake of the physical and mental conformation of their parents. Shall we not, then, be propagating intellectual hybrids if we allow our men alone to progress in intellectual and social development, while we suffer our women to stand where they are? If there be any

truth and fitness in the law of natural selection, can there be any doubt that mental deterioration and physical degeneration will follow a nation which has its men philosophers and women fools? Can there be any real "domestic happiness," which, the poet tell us, "is heaven-born and destined to the skies again," if our women continue to be looked upon as little better than playthings or precocious children? How can we expect Englishmen or any civilized people to treat us as their equals when they find us consigning our women to a position little removed from that of a better class of slaves?

The enthusiasm with which our Poona friends have taken up the matter of the higher education of women is no doubt stimulated by considerations like these. They have taken time by the forelock, and seem determined to work vigorously at the scheme. While they are up and doing, shall we fold our arms and look listlessly on? We who are never tired of proclaiming to the world that Bombay is *Urbs Prima in Indis*, if we have the will, I am sure our way will be easier than that of our Deccan friends. We shall not have to begin everything anew.

We have already an institution which, if well utilized, may serve as a nucleus of the "consummation to be devoutly wished." I allude, of course, to the Alexandra Girls' School—that pet creature of our public-spirited citizen, Mr. Manockjee Cursetjee. This true reformer has spared neither time nor trouble, and watched over its progress with more than parental affection. That school, I am sure, can be rendered more popular and useful if it is freed from the many old-fashioned regulations which hedge it, and be adapted to the growing requirements of our women. It is capable, I think, not only of fulfilling the object of its establishment, but is quite sufficient to be the starting-point of a larger movement for the higher education of women. I shall not enter here into details. My present object is only to appeal to my educated friends to take up the matter in earnest, as it is not only a minor duty, but a crying need of India.

I am, &c.,

SAKHARAM ARJUN.

Girgaum, August 13th.

To the Editor of "The Times of India."

SIR,—Dr. Sakharam Arjun's able letter in your issue of to-day treats of a matter that has been much in my thoughts of late. No one can be even a few months in India, going amongst the people, with even that small amount of intercourse which my unfortunately limited acquaintance with the language per-

mits, without feeling the deep importance of the better education of the women, and lamenting that, with all their cleverness and intelligence, so much brain-power should be allowed to run to waste. In the advance in civilization of any nation, nothing tells so much as the education of its women. As M. Paul Bert, when Minister of Public Instruction, pertinently remarked to the schoolmistresses of France: "By educating a boy you get an educated individual, but by educating a girl you get an educated family." And as regards that higher education, that "culture," of which Dr. Śākḥaram writes, I do not believe the men of a nation can ever attain it to any extent without the assistance of women, and I think the "apostle of culture" himself would be the first to admit his indebtedness in this respect to his mother. Pick any clever lad from the streets and send him to school or college, and he will probably turn out a clever lawyer, doctor, whatever you aimed at. But the educated gentleman is a plant of much slower growth; to secure such an education must begin from infancy, the "sweetness and light" must dawn upon him in his cradle, he must grow up in an atmosphere of refinement, his first impressions must come to him through an intelligent and cultured medium. And as for these first impressions and first lessons he is dependent chiefly upon his mother, it is pre-eminently of importance that she should be a cultured gentlewoman. Educate the women of a country, and the men will as a natural consequence be educated, for an educated mother will always secure a good education for her children; unfortunately the converse does not hold good, and this is, I believe, for the reason that the men in that case are not really educated in the true and full sense of the word; they are only lawyers, doctors, tradesmen, artisans, and so forth, and only look upon what they call education as a means to the end of money-getting; and as they expect their daughters to be provided for as wives, any money spent on their education would be a bad investment. Let any cultivated gentleman think the matter over, and I believe he will agree that, great as are the boons of a good school and college training, the most important part of his education began before school was thought of, and that he feels most indebted to those early years of constant daily intercourse with two cultured minds which the blessing of educated parents secured to him. And what is true of mental is still more true of moral training, and especially as regards truthfulness. Where the woman is in a subordinate position, and has to hold her own against superior strength by cunning, and what is sometimes euphemistically described as "feminine tact," how can the children ever learn to regard truth as all important? And I, for one, believe most firmly that no nation

can ever be truly great which does not regard truthfulness as the cardinal virtue.

I fear I have written at some length; but the question of the education of women seems to me, the more I think of it, to be the most important matter for India at present, far surpassing any other question, social or political.

Yours, &c.,

Cumballa Hill, August 14th.

EDITH PECHEY.

MADRAS NEEDLEWORK EXHIBITION.

We printed last month the prospectus of the Exhibition of Needlework, &c., to be held early next year by the Committee of the Madras Branch of the National Indian Association. We have the satisfaction now to add the following official extracts, showing the approval of the Madras Government in regard to the undertaking :—

Read the following Proceedings of the Madras Government in the Educational Department, dated 30th June, 1884, No. 359 :—

Read the following letter from the Director of Public Instruction to the Chief Secretary to Government, dated Ootacamund, 12th June, 1884, No. O-292 :—

With reference to the enclosed letter from the Inspectress of Girls' Schools, I have the honour to request the sanction of Government for grant-in-aid of the funds of the National Indian Association on account of prizes to be given at the annual exhibition of needlework held by the Association in Madras at the beginning of each year, the grant being limited to a moiety of the sum expended on prizes by the Association and Rs. 150, to be paid on submission of bill showing actual charges.

2. In holding these exhibitions of needlework, fancy and plain, worked in schools for girls, the Association is doing much towards the encouragement of industrial work in girls' schools, and I think deserves, in so doing, the recognition and support of Government, more especially as, at present, needlework, even the higher form of the art, does not fall within the scope of the School of Arts, upon which the State expends so large a sum annually.

3. I beg also to recommend that I may be permitted to offer, on behalf of Government, at a cost not exceeding Rs. 50 approximately, a silver medal for each of the following objects :

- (a) Best specimen of native embroidery.
- (b) The best design for Indian do.
- (c) The best specimen of gold and silver pillow lace.

The adjudication of the prizes I propose to leave to the Exhibition Committee, and to limit competition to pupils and mistresses of girls' schools.

4. Medals are, I believe, granted by Government at the Agricultural Exhibitions, and on this ground I make the recommendation.

5. The total cost, which is but small, can be met from the provision for grants-in-aid.

From Mrs. ISABEL BRANDER, Inspectress of Girls' Schools, Third and Fifth Divisions, South Arcot, and Trichinopoly, to the Director of Public Instruction, dated Madras, 4th June, 1884, No. 1239.

I have the honour to forward a copy of a letter, dated the 3rd instant, from Mr. Chentsal Rau, Honorary Secretary of the Madras Branch of the National Indian Association, in which he applies for a grant towards the expenses of an exhibition of needlework, &c., which has been held annually by the Branch for the last three years.

2. I beg to support the application and to recommend the sanction of a half-grant of the prizes awarded, which for 1885 would amount to about Rs. 126.

From M.R.Ry. V. CHENTSAL RAU, Honorary Secretary, National Indian Association, to the Inspectress of Girls' Schools, dated Mylapore, 3rd June, 1884.

I am directed by the Madras Branch of the National Indian Association to request that you will be so good as to apply to Government for pecuniary aid either in the form of prizes or a grant to the needlework exhibition to be held by the Association at the beginning of 1885.

2. The Association has been holding similar exhibitions for the last three years, and this has had a considerable effect in stimulating native ladies and school children to improve themselves in such useful arts as needlework, drawing and writing.

Order.—The Director's proposals are sanctioned.

(True Extract.)

(Signed)

E. F. WEBSTER,

Chief Secretary.

Communicated to the Secretary, National Indian Association, Inspectress of Girls' Schools, Inspectors of Schools, and Managers of all Hindu and Muhammadan Girls' Schools.

(True Copies and Extract.)

(Signed)

H. B. GRIGG,

Director of Public Instruction.

To the Secretary, National Indian Association.

" Inspectress of Girls' Schools.

" Inspectors of Schools.

" Managers of Schools.

(True Copy.)

A DIALOGUE BETWEEN TWO HINDU WIDOWS.

The following dialogue, supposed to be between two Hindu widows, has been translated from a Magazine called *Arya Darpan Shahjehanpoor*, to which it was contributed by a Hindu widow. It has been translated for this *Journal* by Mr. Roshan Lal, a student in England :

A. Come, sister ; you have called after very long to-day. I hope you have not forgotten me.

B. No ; but being much afraid of your parents I cannot see you very frequently, because your mother often prevents you from associating with me.

A. Then do you also wish to leave me alone in the deep gulf of sorrow ?

B. No ; never ! We both share the same fate ; we are fish of the same pond. But I am very much afraid of the antiquated notions of your parents.

A. Your visit, sister, diminishes my grief to some extent ; otherwise I am always weeping, crushed on all sides with a heap of miseries. Instead of consoling me in my grief, my parents add to my miseries. They do not allow any of my female friends to come to see me, nor do they allow me to see or talk to them. There is no one except you in this world who will have the

patience to listen to my sorrowful tale. But my parents do not want you, too, to see me. If in this raging sea of misery I am deprived even of this small bark—your companionship—then what else remains to maintain my existence? So, dear sister, I entreat you to tell me how to put an end to this scene of misery.

B. Why do you brood over these misfortunes, sister? Every one has to die one day.

A. This life of ours brings us nothing but misery. As death is simply a relief to the long-suffering patient, whom physicians give up in despair, so it is much better for me to die than to drag on a miserable existence.

B. You know this world is nothing but a passing dream, and everyone has to quit it sooner or later.

A. Yes; but sorrows that increase day by day are our portion in this world, and there is no other way except death of getting rid of this perpetual misery. See, in the days past, thousands of widows, finding themselves unable to put up with the insults and slights to which the Hindu widows are daily subjected, and dreading the illtreatment and miseries in store for them, cheerfully offered themselves to be burnt with their deceased husbands!

B. Sister, do not be hopeless; God has created a remedy for all evils.

A. Yes; there is a remedy for all other evils, but none for that from which we suffer.

B. Oh! do not say so. We have for our Ruler the Empress of India, whose justice, like a bright sun, is sure to expel all darkness.

A. Who is this Empress of India, and what can she do for us?

B. What a pity! Our illiterate sisters do not even know who is their Ruler! Our Gracious Queen Victoria resides in London, and is the Queen of Great Britain and Ireland and the Empress of India.

A. The name indicates that she is also one of our sex.

B. Yes, she is.

A. If so, there is yet some hope for us. But then, why does not our Empress try to ameliorate our condition, and mitigate our sufferings? Has she not studied "*Nit Shaster*," or the law of equity?

B. Our suffering may be attributed to the heartlessness and indifference of our own people. Our Empress is not to blame for it.

A. Why not? Are we not as much Her Majesty's loyal subjects as is the male population of our country? Why, then, should we be left quite unprotected and unprovided for in a state of complete helplessness, which seems to have no end? Our

people cannot be solely responsible for our sufferings, for they are mainly guided by the laws of the country, and do not you think they would obey any law enacted for our good?

B. No; they will be very loth to obey any such law.

A. Kindly do tell me, when was such a law passed which has been disregarded by our people?

B. There was a law enacted called the "Widow-Marriage Act," according to which a widow can marry without forfeiting any of her rights.

A. But did any widow-marriage take place in accordance with this law?

B. In Deccan (South India) some two or three widows attempted to avail themselves of this Act; but they were visited with much illtreatment and turned out in the street, so that no attempt was made later to this effect.

A. This Act will not do, sister. You know, unless some stringent law, equally binding on our guardians, so that they are not able to frustrate our wishes in this respect, be passed, the ignorant and illiterate masses of our country will never observe it.

B. It is true; but our Empress does not want to interfere with the social matters of her Indian subjects.

A. Quite true; but how came it to pass that we have also been deprived of our one loop-hole for putting a stop to all our sufferings once for all by self-immolation? The infanticide of girls, which was once exercised in this country to a frightful extent, is also heard of no more. I am told that both of these practices were put down and removed by the strong hand of the law. But if the law was found once efficient to remove the consequences which our sufferings induced our guardians and ourselves to put an end to by the infanticide of girls, or by self-immolation on our part, what makes the law now too feeble to strike a blow at the root of the cause itself? The practices of infanticide and the suttee were resorted to in order to save the poor innocent victim from greater misery,* while the extreme wretchedness and torture, which was the lot of women after their husband's death, induced them to commit the horrible crime of suicide. The law has only removed the effect, while

* Raja Ram Mohun Roy's words also support this view. He says: "It is not from religious prejudices and early impressions only that Hindu widows burn themselves on the piles of their deceased husbands, but also from their witnessing the distress in which widows of the same rank in life are involved, and the insults and slights to which they are daily subjected, they become, in a great measure, regardless of existence after the death of their husbands; and this indifference, accompanied with the hope of future reward held out to them, leads them to the horrible act of suicide."—*Last Days of Ram Mohun Roy*, p. 81.—*R. B.*

the main cause remains untouched and as troublesome as ever. What think you of all this?

B. Yes, sister, what you say is quite true. And I, in fact, see no reason why Her Majesty's Government cannot remove this great evil as well as that of infanticide and suttee. But I think that Her Gracious Majesty has no idea of the extent of our misery and wretchedness, and has, perhaps, never been informed of it.

A. As Her Majesty has been informed, I hear, of the evil resulting from killing our sacred and useful animals in India, it is very likely that our sufferings, which far exceed even those of the animals that are butchered, might have reached Her Majesty's ear as well.

B. But how could our sufferings reach Her Majesty's ear? Who was there to inform Her Majesty of them? Our relations have no compassion to show us in this respect. They are too selfish in their treatment of their female relatives. How can they bear even the idea of our grievances being laid before Her Majesty? There never was yet born a woman who could carry this message to London.

A. It may be so. But what, in your opinion, can our Gracious Queen do for us? Would you like all the widows in India to get married by a Government order?

B. No, sister; I mean no such thing, nor would I like any such order to be given by the Government. What I want is simply this, that we, the Hindu widows, be at liberty, as was the case in ancient times in India, to marry or not to marry as we choose, and as is the custom amongst the English, the Mohammedans, and in fact all the other races of the world, except the present now degenerated race called Hindu. Amongst other nations a widow is not compelled to marry, nor are her wishes thwarted if she wants to do so, and the same privilege I wish to be also accorded to wretched Hindu widows.

A. But what good will result from having that privilege of re-marriage?

B. The advantages that would result from giving widows liberty to re-marry are manifold. In the first place, widows would not be looked down on as wretched creatures, useless mouths, and the greatest sinners in the world. Secondly, it would put a stop to thousands of those crimes, too bad to be named, and a mere idea of which sends a shudder throughout my entire frame. Thirdly, they will not be completely at the mercy of others, who almost invariably regard them, no sooner than they become widows, as their life-long slaves, so that they have no chance in their whole life of ever hoping to get liberty. Fourthly, they would no longer be subject to all sorts of slights

and illtreatment, as is the case now, for their relations would know that they were no burden to them; and consequently, whether they married or not, they would be treated with more respect and leniency, and would not be forced to put up with every kind of disregard now shown to them. In short, they would not be hopeless for ever, and would be free to marry or or not to marry, according to circumstances.

A. Quite true. But who has got power enough to remove every obstacle from the way of Hindu widows to marry again except Her Gracious Majesty? and it is not likely that our cries, piercing though they may be, should reach Her Majesty at such a great distance. So it would not be wrong to say that hope that comes to all never comes to us, and without hope life is an intolerable burden, and in our case a perpetual torture also; and in this enlightened age, and with this humane Government, slavery of the worst type and servitude of the most painful kind, besides innumerable other sorrows that prey on our hearts, have been our lot. So, dear sister, submit to the will of the Almighty Creator; for no one has compassion enough to tell our sad tale to our Empress. For who else can feel the writhing pain and overwhelming sorrow who has not suffered like us? So we are doomed to undergo eternal misery, servitude, slavery and torture.

B. Oh, do not give vent to such despondent thoughts! God might create some one even amongst the women themselves to undertake this noble mission and carry it to London.

A. Yes, sister, God be blessed! India is not, even at the present moment, without some sympathetic and wise women. I have now and then seen mention made of them in newspapers.

B. Yes; I, too, have read their petitions to Lord Ripon in the same.

A. Whom do you mean by Lord Ripon?

B. What a pity! Do you not even know that His Excellency the Marquis of Ripon is at present at the head of the Indian Government?

A. You, a little while ago, told me that Her Majesty the Empress of India was our Ruler. Now you say that Lord Ripon governs us. Whom am I to believe in as the Sovereign power?

B. Her Majesty the Empress of India is our Sovereign, and Lord Ripon is Her Majesty's representative in India at present.

A. What! Can Her Majesty's representative, in India too, ameliorate our condition?

B. Yes. Why not? In 1826 our Gracious Queen removed the crying sins of self-immolation of widows, the infanticide of girls, slavery, &c., through Lord W. Bentinck, who was then Her Majesty's representative in India. And our present Viceroy

is especially known to be one of the kindest of men, and there will be no cause for surprise if His Excellency takes up the cause of helpless widows and sends comfort to their bosoms once for all. But what a pity that the poor widows, who require the most protection themselves, being completely helpless, are left unnoticed, and no provision is made for bettering their condition! Our fervent prayers would be offered to God for His Excellency's welfare, and our blessings would follow him to England, if he pays attention to our indescribable sufferings.

4. Your words, sister, inspire me with a degree of hope. But in my opinion neither the suttee system, nor infanticide of girls, nor slavery, nothing in fact, has been effected as long as some arrangement is not made for widow-marriage. The practice of suttee has ceased taking place openly; but the poor victims are daily, nay hourly, being consumed by worse than hell-fire. Nor has the custom of infanticide practically ceased. Formerly it was only practised in the case of a female child; but now a male child even, whose birth is spoken of in our Shastres as the best of God's gifts, enjoys no security. Although it fills me with shame and consternation, yet this is a fact too notorious to be concealed. Slavery, too, has not been abolished, but has rather been introduced and encouraged and made to thrive under the protection of a whimsical and arbitrary custom. Are the widows in any way better than slaves? Nay, they are thousands of times worse than slaves. A slave can hope for freedom. He now and then runs away from his master. But the widows have no such hope. They are doomed to a life-long slavery, and, what is worse, to swallow all sorts of slights, calumnies, and slanders flung at them. So, dear sister, until and unless every facility is offered by law, and every provision made for widow-marriage, it is an idle boast to say that suttee, infanticide, and slavery exist no longer.

(To be continued.)

REVIEW.

REMINISCENCES OF AN INDIAN OFFICIAL. By GENERAL SIR ORFEUR CAVENAGH, K.C.S.I. London: W. H. Allen & Co.

Few lives offer a wider field of interest than an Indian official career. Life in the East is always clothed with a sort of glamour; and this was more strikingly the case fifty years ago, before our Eastern Empire had been brought into such

near and constant intercourse with England. Personal Reminiscences are of necessity somewhat egotistical in their character; but they nevertheless throw light on historical scenes and incidents which is valuable in proportion to the character of the writer; and the record in this book is that of an earnest, high-principled man, whose highest aim was to do his duty to the country which he served, and to the peoples among whom his lot was cast.

General Cavenagh entered the East India Company's service in 1838. Four years later he was posted to the 4th Irregular Cavalry, and soon after joined the army which was advancing on Gwalior, under Sir Hugh Gough. In the battle of Maharajpur his horse was mortally wounded, and his left leg was carried away. Six months later the gallant young officer was again on duty, being "placed on his charger by a couple of orderlies." He was again wounded in the action at Buddowal, in 1846, and from that time his active military career closed. In that year he was appointed to the post of Superintendent of the Mysore Princes, and in the following year he was also made Superintendent of the Ex-Ameers of Scinde; posts for which, from his courtesy and kindly feeling towards the natives of the country, he was well fitted. His next appointment was the political charge of the Nepaulese Mission just arrived in Calcutta, *en route* to England with presents for the Queen. The Ambassador was General Jung Bahadur, a young man of not more than two and thirty, the Prime Minister of Nepal, and practically the ruler of that country, a position he had attained by the deliberate slaughter of all who stood in his way. His administration seems to have been just and popular. Some amusing details are given of the English visit, exhibiting in a striking way the contrast between English and Oriental ideas.

On his return to India, in 1854, General (then Major) Cavenagh was appointed to the office of Town and Fort Major in Calcutta, one of the earliest fruits of his rule being the construction of the fine range of barracks in the fort for European soldiers, known as the "Dalhousie Barracks." Before their erection the accommodation provided for the troops was "deficient in all the properties needed for the preservation of health in a tropical climate." This great improvement was carried out with the hearty support of Lord Dalhousie, then Governor-General.

In 1857 the Sepoy Mutiny broke out. It was an exciting time in Calcutta, and the difficulties and responsibilities of the military department were greatly increased by the delay and indecision of Lord Canning and his advisers, and their failure to realise the extent of the danger. Calcutta and its fort were practically unprotected; and but for a conversation overheard, and for a heavy thunderstorm which led to the postponement of a fête at the Botanical Gardens, to which "all Calcutta" was invited, Calcutta might have shared the fate of some of the large up-country stations. General Cavenagh's narrative will recall many stirring scenes and incidents to those who were in Calcutta at that eventful time.

In 1859 General Cavenagh accepted the Governorship of the Straits Settlements, which he held until 1867, when by Act of Parliament the Settlements were transferred to the Colonial Government. During these eight years General Cavenagh laboured most successfully to develop the resources of the Settlements, to improve the means of communication, to extend the administration of justice, and to establish a sound system of education. It is difficult to understand that the transfer should have been made without any official intimation to the Governor, and that he should have been left to learn from a private source that he was to be removed from office. But so it was, and on the 15th March, 1867, he left Singapore, the only compensation for his unwilling relegation to the ranks of the unemployed being the good-will of the community over which he had ruled.

J. B. KNIGHT, C.I.E.

The Earl of Dufferin has been appointed Viceroy of India, as successor to the Marquis of Ripon.

INDIAN INTELLIGENCE.

The Boden Professor of Sanskrit has obtained the sanction of the Secretary of State for India for the establishment of six Government Scholarships of the value of £200 a year, tenable for three years. Preference is to be given to Statutory Civil Servants who are desirous of passing a probationary period in this country; and the scholars are to be allowed to reside in any institution connected with any University in the United

Kingdom which provides supervision of students, enforces residence within definite local limits, and is approved by the Secretary of State for India.

An influential deputation of native gentlemen, headed by the Regent of Kolhapore, waited on H.E. the Governor of Bombay on July 19th, at Poona, in order to urge the desirability of help being accorded by the Bombay Government to the High School at that place, which we referred to last month. Sir James Fergusson expressed his deep sympathy with the objects of the movement, and referred with strong approval to its spontaneous character. He informed the deputation that the Government would give a building grant to the school building, under the usual conditions of giving building grants, and that it would pay the teaching expenses of the school. H.E. remarked that there were many obstacles in the way of the success of the undertaking, of which the natives were but too sensible, and which it would be at first difficult to surmount. The scheme seems to promise well, as it has so much cordial support from influential native gentlemen.

The annual speech day of the Rajaram College, Kolhapore, which has existed four years, took place in July last, under the presidency of the Regent. The number of undergraduates is 38, and the number on the rolls of the High School for the year was 381, showing a remarkable increase. In the department of Sirdars there are at present eight with good reports as to study and conduct. The College Principal, Mr. Candy, who read the Report, ended by saying that it might be seen from the account of the work of the year that the aim was to make the College not merely an Examination-passing machine, "but rather a centre of vigorous life and refinement."

The Kolhapore Girls' Schools have also had a prize distribution. It appears that Miss Little, the Head Mistress of the principal Girls' School, encourages adult ladies to attend the school, providing them with separate rooms, and instructing them in needlework. Her endeavours are said to be successful.

The Madras Agricultural College has been affiliated to the Education Department under the Principalship of Mr. Robertson, who has been for fifteen years head of the Saidapet Farm. It is stated that there will probably be in time an Agricultural School in every district of the Madras Presidency, with an agricultural experimental station, over which the College will have control. The College starts with nearly 100 students, all graduates or undergraduates from various parts of India, many being the sons of landed proprietors.

The prize distribution of the Lahore Bengali Infant School

was presided over by Mr. Ibbotson, Acting Director of Public Instruction, Punjab. This school is maintained by the small number of Bengali gentlemen resident at Lahore. Mr. Ibbotson congratulated the Bengali community on their self-help, and urged upon them perseverance in their efforts.

The Viceroy referred as follows, in the Legislative Council at Simla, to the death of the Hon. Kristodas Pal, C.I.E. :—" Before we proceed to consider the business upon the list before us, I am sure my honourable colleagues will allow me to express my deep regret at the lamented death of Rai Bahadoor Kristodas Pal, which has taken place since the last meeting of the Legislative Council. By this melancholy event, we have lost from amongst us a colleague of distinguished ability, from whom we had on all occasions received assistance, of which I readily acknowledge the value. He has been taken from us in the prime of life, when his powers were at their best; and we might have hoped he would still, for many years to come, have been permitted to devote himself to the service of his country with the same energy and patriotism as had hitherto marked his career. Mr. Kristodas Pal owed the honourable position to which he had attained to his own exertions. His intellectual endowments were of a high order, his rhetorical gifts were acknowledged by all who heard him, and were enhanced when addressing this Council by his thorough mastery over the English language. He will long live in the remembrance of his countrymen, and it is with feelings of sincere sorrow that I pay this last tribute to the memory of one who was so well entitled to be regarded as a worthy representative of the intellect and eloquence of the race to which he belonged."

Nawab Ahsanollah Khan Bahadur, of Dacca, has had the grief of losing his eldest son, Khajah Hafezullah, after a short illness, at the age of 16. He was very intelligent, spoke English with as much facility as Bengali, and had been carefully trained under his father's personal care. His character is said to have been remarkable for simplicity and goodness. The Nawab has made a donation of Rs. 2,000 in aid of the Madani-pore Mosque, which the Mahomedan community have resolved to call by the name of the lamented Khajah Hafezullah. With the remainder of the funds subscribed for the Mosque, it is intended to establish a Madrassah, and to appoint a Moulvi in connection with the Madanipore School, which prepares for Matriculation.

We regret also to record the death of Dr. Anandrao Atmaram Pandurang, son of Dr. Atmaram Pandurang, Bombay, at the age of 32. He studied for many years in England, taking the

M.B. and B.Sc. degrees, and obtaining four gold medals in different branches of Medicine. He returned to Bombay two years ago.

News has been received of the death of the Dewan of the Bhownagar State, Azam Samaldass Parmanandass. He had served in the administration of the State from an early period of his career, and he succeeded the late minister about five years ago, by the invitation of the present enlightened ruler of the territory, H.H. Maharaja Takhtsingjee, K.C.S.I. He steadily promoted the progressive policy which has for some years so distinguished the management of Bhownagar, and his loss will be deeply felt by the Maharaja and the people. The Dewan, besides being a sagacious administrator, was a good Persian and Sanskrit scholar.

The Nizam of Hyderabad has appointed Mr. Sabapathi Iyah, Barrister-at-Law, as the Government Advocate in His Highness' Dominions, and also as Law Lecturer, for training young men for the higher appointments of the State.

The subject selected by the Syndicate of the Bombay University for the Kharsandas Mulji prize for 1885 is, "The position of Indian women as presented in the heroic poems, contrasted with their position in modern times." The subject for the Sir George Le Grand Jacob prize is, "The Commerce of India as affected by British Rule."

6)

PERSONAL INTELLIGENCE.

In the late Final Examination of the Selected Indian Civil Service Candidates, Mr. Mancherji Pestonji Kharegat, of Bombay, took the first place, with 3,036 marks. He also obtained the following prizes: History and Geography of India, £30; Hindustani, £25; and Sanskrit, £45.

Mr. Tamiz Uddin Ahmed has passed the L.S.A. (London) Examination.

Arrivals.—The brother and the cousin of His Highness the Maharaja Gaikwar of Baroda. Mr. P. Narayenswami Chetti, from Madras.

Departures.—Mr. Jagodesh Chunder Bose, B.A., for Bengal. Mr. J. F. Kolaporewala, for Bombay.



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THE REPORT OF THE INDIAN EDUCATION COMMISSION.

CONCLUDING NOTICE.

IN the later chapters of their Report the Indian Education Commission deal, among other subjects, with the education of various classes which appear to them to require special treatment, and to which the principles laid down in the preceding chapters cannot be strictly applied. "These classes include the opposite poles of society, the Chiefs and nobles at one extreme, and the aboriginal tribes and low castes at the other. Besides these, again, are the Musalmans; and, confined to no particular caste or sect, those families whose poverty has practically debarred them from all education." The questions involved in the education of these various and very different classes present various degrees of difficulty, and differ considerably in their relative importance; but they all of them demand attention in a comprehensive review of the educational requirements of the millions forming the population of our great Indian Empire. For instance, the education of the "aboriginal tribes"—an expression which is used "to distinguish those races which have not adopted the civilisations or the creeds of the higher races inhabiting India"—is an interesting question, full of difficulties, and by no means undeserving of consideration, but in its practical importance, at the present time, insignificant in comparison with the far larger questions

involved in the education of the Muhammadans, who number upwards of forty millions, and whether from a numerical, or a social, or a political point of view, are enormously more important than the non-Aryan races, while the difficulties in dealing with them, great as they are, on the whole are considerably less than in the case of the scattered aboriginal tribes.

Of these latter the Commission say :

The general character of the aboriginal races, as classified according to the census returns adopted by us, is very distinct. Those who still avoid contact with the plains are the most difficult to deal with, as will appear from a description of the life which they lead. A few of them cultivate patches of the hill-sides, which they lay bare of timber and undergrowth, merely setting fire to the fellings, and growing coarse grain in the ashes, without any attempt to dig the soil. Others keep herds of cattle and buffaloes, which they graze in the forests, living upon their milk, and exchanging what they do not require with other portions of the forest community for the grain which they grow. These herdsmen have little commerce with the plains. A few tribes live by industrial pursuits, smelting iron from the ores found in the laterite on the mountains, and producing the iron arrow-points, the long sharp-pointed spears and small axes which nearly every hillman carries with him, not only for domestic purposes and for cutting wood, but also as a protection against wild beasts. A still larger section live by the chase, pursuing deer, and even tigers and panthers, with their rough weapons, shooting birds with the bow and arrow, not disdaining even squirrels, rats, and dead animals, for their ordinary meals. All these tribes eat berries and roots, and the excessive mortality and sickness among them are often attributed to the unwholesome character of their ordinary food. Many of them fall victims to the attacks of wild beasts, to the bites of poisonous snakes, and to the constant malaria and fever to which the heavy rainfall gives rise. They are patient, inured to suffering, and naturally truthful. But the most universal features in their character are their shyness and confirmed dislike of any settled occupation. Their poverty is extreme; and as they have little communication with the villagers of the plain, and carry on their own simple transactions with each other by barter, there is no effective desire among them for the most elementary education. With them contact with the outer world must be the precursor of schools. Amidst such a population, separated as they are by dense forests or steep mountains, the difficulties of pioneering education are extreme.

Some of these Aborigines, such as the Gonds of the Central Provinces, have become mixed up with the Hindu population of the plains, "and yet have retained some of their distinctive characteristics." While they have adopted the system of caste, and mix with Hindus, they still sacrifice and eat bullocks; they worship the powers of evil, the spirits of their fathers, and the weapons and creatures of the chase. They despise education. Their language is in a state of fusion and transition, and in most cases has never been reduced to writing.

The recommendations of the Commission for promoting education among these extremely backward races provide, as a matter of course, for exempting them from all payment of school fees; but that which, perhaps, is the most practical suggestion, is that missionary agencies should receive special encouragement and liberal assistance in educating these tribes, and that in this case the conscience clause, which the Commission have recommended as I venture to think unwisely, to be introduced into the grant-in-aid rules, should be dispensed with. One important aboriginal tribe—the Santals—have for some years been brought under the influence of Christian missionaries with considerable success.

The question of the language and character to be employed in instructing these tribes, is a question which has given rise to a good deal of discussion. In some cases the language of the tribe has not been reduced to writing. In others the tribes are said to be familiar with the language of the Hindus near whom or among whom they live. In some cases persons belonging to the same tribe speak different dialects. Some of the district officers and educational officers advise that the Hindu language of the country or neighbourhood should be the language of instruction, and that no attempt should be made to reduce to writing those aboriginal languages which are still without a written character. On the other hand, Mr. Cust, the honorary secretary of the Asiatic Society, and one of the Santal missionaries are cited as urging the importance of maintaining these languages as the medium of instruction in primary schools; Mr. Cust advocating the adoption of a modified form of the Roman character in those cases where the language has at present no written character. The Commission do not support the last-mentioned proposal, for the very good reason that, "unless the larger Indian communities

can be induced to adopt that character"—a consummation by no means probable—"it would not be expedient to perpetuate the isolation of the Aborigines by teaching them an alphabet as foreign to their neighbours as to them." On the question of language the Commission advise that in elementary schools and classes the medium of instruction should be the mother-tongue of the Aborigines, whatever that may be, but that the vernacular of the district should be taught in the upper classes of the schools; "for although a foreign language should not be forced upon any tribe, and certainly not as a means of primary education, still it is desirable, in the best interests of most aboriginal races, that they should be able to associate and deal on equal terms with the neighbouring population." They add:

Where any vernacular retains independent vitality, and can be reduced to writing, we think that efforts should be made to recognise it. Where the Aborigines have already adopted a Hindu language, we would give instruction in that tongue, and not endeavour to go back from a change which is beneficial to them. But in many cases a change is going on, and in such cases we would commence with the aboriginal dialect spoken, and gradually advance to the study of that vernacular which is in course of adoption. A wide discretion may be left to local authorities, but we are convinced that greater efforts are required, and that the task of educating the aboriginal races, difficult as it is, should no longer be neglected. Much may be done by the Department, and more by private effort liberally aided and encouraged. We think that Government should freely aid and recognise any efforts made by missionaries or others to reduce the speech of the aboriginal races to writing, and to compile grammars and vocabularies of the numerous non-Aryan races throughout India.

Another point to which the Commission attach importance is the training of aboriginal boys as teachers.

All this is excellent advice, and it is well that it should be placed upon record, and acted upon so far as circumstances may admit. The Report shows that in Bengal fair progress is being made, mainly through missionary agency; that something is being done in Bombay and in the Central Provinces; and that altogether some 25,000 children of the aboriginal races are receiving instruction of some description; but it is not to be expected that funds to any considerable amount will be available to carry out the recommendations of the Commission upon an extensive scale, with a due regard to the

more pressing claims from other quarters upon the finances of the State and the time and attention of its officers. The education of the Muhammadans and the education of the women of India have claims upon the Government far more pressing than those which attach to the instruction of the aboriginal tribes.

The Muhammadans—numbering, as they do, upwards of 40 millions against the 6½ millions of Aborigines referred to in the Report; representing the former rulers of the country, but now in a very depressed condition; belonging to a race noted for its culture in former times, and still containing many individuals who value learning, but who at present hold aloof from that description of learning which is essential to raise them in the social scale—form a class to which it is on every ground desirable to extend the advantages of our educational system and a fair share of employment in the public service. So far back as 1782 the policy of enabling the Muhammadans of Bengal to qualify for public employment was recognised by Warren Hastings, who with this view established in Calcutta a special College for the instruction of Muhammadans under the designation of the Calcutta Madrasa. Fifty years afterwards it was found that the endeavour to impart a high order of English education to the Muhammadans had completely failed; and after the lapse of another forty years, in 1872, when the subject again underwent careful investigation, although there had been some improvement in the interval as regards the general spread of education among the race, it appeared that the Muhammadans were still very backward in the matter of English education, and were still at a great disadvantage as compared with their Hindu fellow-subjects in the matter of official employment. In one Presidency, Madras, it was found that out of 485 persons then employed in the upper grades of the uncovenanted Civil Service, only 19 were Muhammadans. The fact is, that the Muhammadans, as a body, have all along held aloof from the English education imparted in the Indian Colleges and Schools. For this all sorts of causes have been assigned. The Commission consider the most powerful factors to have been “pride of race, a memory of bygone superiority, religious fears, and a not unnatural attachment to the learning of Islam.” The numerical strength of the Muhammadan population varies very much in the different Provinces. In

the Punjab, in 1871, it was 51·6 per cent. of the total population; in Bengal, 32·3 per cent.; in Bombay, including Sind, 15·4 per cent.; in the North-Western Provinces, 32·3 per cent.; in Oudh, 9·9 per cent., and in Madras only 6 per cent. The Commission show that in the North-Western Provinces, and to "a much larger extent in Oudh, the proportion of Muhammadan schoolboys to the total number" at school was at that time greater than the proportion of Muhammadans in the population. In the other Provinces it was much less; "the population percentage of the Muhammadans in these Provinces, taken together, being over 26, and the school percentage under 10." In 1872 special measures were adopted to provide additional facilities for the education of Muhammadans in Madras, Bengal and Bombay; and the result appears to have been satisfactory as regards elementary and secondary education. This was especially the case in Madras. By the establishment of a limited number of special Government schools for Musalman pupils; by making a special provision for Muhammadans in aided schools; by admitting them on payment of half the usual school fees; by the establishment of scholarships specially reserved for Musalman students; by the appointment of a special Deputy-Inspector for Musalman schools, and by the establishment of an Elementary Normal School for training Musalman teachers, the number of Musalmans at school was raised in the ten years ending with the financial year 1880-81, from 5,531 to 22,075; the latter number being 6·7 per cent. of the total number of pupils under instruction, while the percentage of Musalmans to the total population of the Presidency was only 6 per cent. In Bombay things had not been so bad in 1872 as they had been in Madras; but there also additional facilities for the education of Musalmans had been provided, with a somewhat similar result. Very much the same may be said of Bengal, where the number of pupils of the Muhammadan race is stated to have risen from 28,148 in 1871 to 262,108 in 1882; but in all these Provinces the improvement has been almost entirely confined to what may be regarded as secondary and elementary education; the indifference to the higher education which is imparted in the English Colleges being still apparently very great. Thus, in the English Colleges in Bombay, out of 475 students, only 7 were Musalmans. In Bengal the corresponding numbers were 2,738 and 106.

In the North-Western Provinces Muhammadan education has been, on the whole, less backward than in the other Provinces, and there a movement has taken place during the last thirteen or fourteen years, under the guidance of Mawlavi Sayyid Ahmad Khan, which has resulted in the establishment of a very promising Anglo-Oriental College at Aligarh, mainly under native management. This College is open to Hindus as well as to Musalmans, but the majority of the students belong to the latter race. It has an income of Rs. 34,000, chiefly derived from endowments. It is extremely popular, and much of its popularity is said to be due to provision having been made for the residence of students belonging to families of the upper classes. The Commission say :

The rooms of the first-class boarders are scarcely less comfortable than those of an undergraduate at Oxford or Cambridge, and the Musalmans take their meals together in a dining-hall. To a first-class boarder the cost of living at the College is about Rs. 300 a year, which includes rent, board, medical attendance, and tuition fees; a second-class boarder pays about Rs. 190. Of the two classes there were, in 1881-82, 171 in residence, of whom 16 were Hindus. At the outset the undertaking met with very great opposition from Musalmans of the old school. Fortunately, however, the originator of the scheme, the Honourable Sayyid Ahmad Khan, was not to be daunted by opposition or deterred by want of sympathy. In the esteem of the more liberal-minded of his co-religionists he held the highest place; and his perseverance was before long rewarded by the hearty co-operation of powerful friends. Chief among those who came forward to his support was Sir Salar Jung, Prime Minister to the Nizam. His lead was followed by many influential Musalmans in all parts of the country; and though the College funds are at present insufficient for the complete working of the scheme, the number of students is now limited chiefly by the want of accommodation. If, then, the Musalmans are to be reproached for not having availed themselves at an earlier stage of the benefits of the education offered them by Government, they have certainly set an example to the generality of the population by founding and maintaining, almost without State aid, a College in some respects superior to any educational institution in India, and one which bids fair to be of the greatest importance from a political, as well as from an educational point of view.

One of the causes which are alleged by Muhammadans to have deterred them from availing themselves of the Govern-

ment Colleges and Schools, is the absence in those institutions of any means of instruction in the tenets of their own faith; and, accordingly, a special feature in this College is, that "religious instruction is a part of the daily exercise, and places of worship are to be among the College buildings." The Commission justly observe that the importance of this College "is not confined to the special nature of the education it affords. Politically, its influence is great, and will be greater; for it is the first expression of independent Musalman effort which the country has witnessed since it came under British rule."

In the Punjab, where the proportion of Musalmans to the total population is larger than in any other Indian Province, viz., 51·6 per cent., the percentage of Musalman pupils to the total number of pupils under instruction is only 38·2, owing apparently, in a great measure, to the utter indifference to education which is displayed by the Musalmans of the Derajat and Peshawur divisions, where the population is largely composed of Pathans.

Closely connected with the subject of Muhammadan education is the question of alleged Muhammadan grievances as regards their exclusion from official employment. This matter was carefully enquired into and reported upon by the several local Governments a few years ago, and is noticed at some length in the Report of the Commission. The facts vary in the different Provinces. In the North-Western Provinces and the Punjab the Muhammadans have, it would seem, rather more than less than their fair share of public appointments, regarding their claims merely from the population point of view. Concerning the other Provinces, where the proportion of Muhammadan employes, especially in the higher appointments, is extremely small, the answer of the Bombay Government, that the reason is to be found in "the unwillingness of the Musalman mind to submit to the educational tests which qualified for entrance into the public service," would seem to be very generally applicable.

It cannot be doubted that pride of race and hereditary indolence have much to say to the general failure of the Muhammadans in most of the Provinces of India to achieve success in the various walks of life; but it is also true that there are circumstances connected with their religion, and with the sentiments which have been handed down to them

from their forefathers as to the uses to which learning should be put, which seriously hinder the Muhammadans in competing with their Hindu fellow-students. The teaching of the mosque must precede the lessons of the school. "Before the young Muhammadan boy is allowed to turn his thoughts to secular instruction he must commonly pass five years in going through a course of sacred learning." Unlike the Hindu, he values the learning which he acquires, his studies in Arabic and in Muhammadan Law and theology, not for the sake of success in a profession, or as a passport to official employment, but for the position which it will secure to him among the learned men of his own race. In all this there is much which it is impossible not to regard with a certain degree of sympathy, and which, prejudicial though it be to the prosperity and usefulness of the race, indicates a certain elevation of mind which it is difficult unequivocally to condemn. Impressed by these considerations, but at the same time recognising the great importance, both politically and socially, of rendering our system of education more popular with the Muhammadans, the Commission make various recommendations for treating Mahomedan schools and students with special liberality. Among these are: (a) liberal encouragement to Muhammadan schools to add purely secular subjects to their course of instruction; (b) special arrangements for imparting instruction in the Hindustani and Persian languages in middle and high schools situated in places where Muhammadans form a fair proportion of the population; (c) the establishment of special scholarships for Muhammadans on a graduated system, to enable them to proceed from lower to higher schools; (d) the establishment of normal schools for training Muhammadan teachers; (e) the employment more largely of Muhammadan inspecting officers; and (f) the encouragement of Muhammadan Associations, such as the Anjuman-i-Islam in Bombay, and the Anjuman-i-Islamiya in Lahore. Some of these recommendations have been already anticipated in the measures carried out after the question of Muhammadan education had been brought under consideration in 1872. They are all unobjectionable in the circumstances of the case, and they will all help, though perhaps slowly, to raise the educational condition of this important class; but unquestionably the most hopeful incident in connection with the future of the Muhammadan community is the remarkable

movement in the North-Western Provinces, which has resulted in the establishment of the Aligarh College. The progress of this institution will be a matter of the greatest interest; for if it shall prove to be a success, it will mark a new era in the history of Indian education, and will solve difficulties by no means confined to the particular class immediately under notice. The general introduction of the boarding system in Indian Colleges and High Schools would be an immense boon, and would greatly conduce to the education of the native aristocracy, which, as a body, has been scarcely, if at all, more benefited by our educational policy than the Muhammadans.

The education of the Native Chiefs and noblemen forms the subject of a separate section of the chapter now under review. It is a class which requires special treatment, not, of course, in the way of special liberality on the part of the State, but by organising separate institutions, in which the sons of such persons may receive a liberal education apart from the other classes of the population, with whom they will not associate in the ordinary Schools and Colleges. The Commission remark that it is not surprising that the native aristocracy, as a whole, should hitherto have held aloof from accepting an education after European methods.

In the first place, the inducement which springs from an unsatisfied desire has been almost entirely absent. The native Prince has his own traditional standard of civilization, with which, as a rule, he is satisfied. His horizon hardly extends beyond his own Court. His administration is practical in character, and is bounded rather by what his subjects are used to than what is adapted to the progressive needs of western society. The pleasures which satisfied his forefathers satisfy him; and in his national poetry he finds abundant food for his literary tastes. The native noble is the native Prince in small. If his means are ample for his favourite pursuits, he sees no reason why he should labour with a view to some visionary enjoyment; if they are not, it never occurs to him that books can supply the want. From his boyhood everything about him combines to thrust education into the background. The influence of the *zanana* is generally opposed to any enlightenment. Early marriage brings with it hindrances and distractions; the custom of living far away from the larger centres forbids much interest in matters of general importance. In some cases hereditary instinct leads him to regard education as scarcely better than a disgrace. In others, education would be

accepted if made easy to obtain, and if free from all hazard of social contamination. In the second place, with the exceptions which we shall presently notice, no measures of any importance have been taken to attract these classes towards our education. Arrangements have, indeed, been made in most Provinces for educating minors under the charge of the District Court or the Court of Wards. From various causes, however, little has resulted from such endeavours; and there does not seem much prospect, within any period to which it is worth while to look forward, that the titled classes generally will allow their sons to associate with the students of our ordinary schools and colleges.

The Commission describe what is being done in the Mayo College at Ajmir for the education of the chiefs, nobles, and principal thakoors of Rajputana. This institution was founded at the instance of the late lamented Earl of Mayo, in consequence of a suggestion made in 1869 by Captain (now Colonel) Walter, then Political Agent at Bhartpur, who, in an official report describing the circumstances under which the Maharaja of that State had been brought up, stated that we had not "yet thoroughly fathomed the duty that we owe to our feudatories" in the matter of education. The result has been the establishment of a College, with an endowment of nearly seven lakhs of rupees subscribed by the Rajput Chiefs, in aid of which the Government of India have contributed a similar sum, besides building a boarding-house for the pupils coming from some of the poorer States. The principal States have erected boarding-houses for their own cadets. At the date of the report the College contained 62 pupils, whose progress is favourably noticed. The Commission state that at the opening of the College "the attainments of the boys were very limited, few of them having any knowledge of English, or much knowledge even of their own vernaculars. Nor, which was more surprising, did they show much interest in out-door games or athletics. Even riding was little cared for; boys from different States would not amalgamate, and the general want of spirit was very marked. But before long the attendance at the playground, at first enforced, became voluntary; the riding classes quickly grew popular, and cricket, rounders, and football were played with a zest scarcely less keen than that shown at an English School. Considerable progress was also made year by year in the standard of instruction, and English, Sanskrit, Hindi, Persian, Urdu, Arithmetic, Algebra, Euclid, History, and Geography are now among

the studies of the College." A similar institution on a smaller scale has been established in Kathiawar; and in other Colleges and Schools at Indore, in Kolhapur and Guzerat, and also at Lucknow, special classes have been established for the sons of native Chiefs and large landed proprietors. The Commission recommend that the same thing should be done in other parts of India. Of the utility of the measure there can be no question whatever. An educational system, intended to be so comprehensive that it includes within its purview every step in the educational ladder, from the elementary Village School to the University, which makes no practical provision for the education of the territorial aristocracy, is obviously open to the reproach that it neglects one of the most important of its functions; but I think it is open to question whether the Government of India has not been unduly liberal in its arrangements for the Mayo College. At first sight it would appear that if there is any class which might reasonably be expected to meet the whole expense of their education, it is the Chiefs and other large landholders; but here we have the Government not only contributing a sum equal to the whole of the contributions of the Chiefs, but in addition defraying the cost of erecting boarding-houses for the relatives of the smaller Chiefs! It may have been deemed politically expedient to take this course in this particular instance, but the precedent is one which can hardly be followed in other parts of India. It is strange that this anomaly should have been passed unnoticed by the Commission.

The question of the admission of children of the lowest castes, such as the Pariahs of Madras, the Mahars and Dhers of Bombay, and the Chandals of Bengal, into the public schools in India, has long been a question of great practical difficulty. The Commission make two recommendations on the subject: first, that the principle laid down by the Home Government many years ago, "that no boy be refused admission to a Government College or School merely on the ground of caste," be now reaffirmed as a principle, and be applied with due caution to every institution, not reserved for special races, which is wholly maintained at the cost of public funds, whether provincial, municipal, or local. The proviso that the principle referred to is to be applied "with due caution" practically renders the injunction nugatory, and leaves matters pretty much as they have been hitherto. The second recom-

mentation is more to the purpose. It is, "that the establishment of special schools or classes for children of low castes be liberally encouraged in places where there are a sufficient number of such children to form separate schools or classes, and where the schools already maintained from public funds do not sufficiently provide for their education. The truth seems to be that the first of the two recommendations was regarded as a formality, which it was thought decorous to observe. The real opinion of the Commission, viz., that if the low caste children are to be educated, they must be educated in special schools, is contained in the second recommendation.

The chapter on female education is very full and extremely interesting. It adverts to the demand slowly, but surely, springing up among the natives for education for their girls—a desire of comparatively recent origin, of which it would be easy to exaggerate the extent and force. It treats of the difficulties arising from the social customs of India in regard to child-marriage, and the seclusion of the women of the well-to-do classes; the short duration of the school-going age in the case of girls; the scanty supply of female teachers, and the unsuitability of the text-books commonly in use, which have been framed for boys rather than for girls. It describes what has been done in this matter in the several Provinces, the progress which has been made, the subjects of instruction, the working of the *Zanana* agencies, missionary and secular; the deficiency of modern vernacular books at all suitable for the *Zanana*; the plans which have been tried for procuring an adequate number of female teachers; the necessity for more liberal rules for grants in aid of girls' schools; the practical objections to the employment of male inspectors to inspect girls' schools; the importance of liberality and care in the distribution of prizes, and various other things, all deserving of consideration in connection with this important subject.

The remarks contained in the following paragraph, although it is headed "Female Education in Ancient India," are still to a great extent a true description of the state of things which prevails in a great part of India at the present time:

While endorsing the sentiments of the despatches* in regard both to the promotion of female education and to the difficulties

* The Despatches of 1854 and 1859 are here referred to.

which stand in the way of any sudden expansion, we do not underrate what had been effected in earlier periods by the natives of India themselves. Apart from the Sanskrit traditions of women of learning and literary merit in pre-historic and mediæval times, there can be no doubt that when the British obtained possession of the country, a section of the female population was educated up to the modest requirements of domestic life. In certain provinces little girls occasionally attended the indigenous village schools, and learned the same lessons as their brothers. Many women of the upper class had their minds stored with the legends of the Puranas and epic poems, which supply impressive lessons in morality, and in India form the substitute for history. Among the lower orders, the keeping of the daily accounts fell, in some households, to the mother or chief female of the family. The arithmetic of the homestead was often conducted by primitive methods, addition and subtraction being performed by means of flowers or any rude counters that came to hand. Among the more actively religious sects and races, girls received an education as a necessary part of their spiritual training. In the Punjab they may still be seen seated in groups around some venerable Sikh priest, learning to read and write the national Scriptures or Granth; and the Brahman tutor of wealthy Hindu families does not confine his instruction to the sons alone. In some parts of the country, such education as girls obtained, was confined ostensibly to reading and arithmetic, writing being an art not held suitable for girls of respectable life. The intellectual attainments, wit, and powers of memory of the Indian courtesan class have often been remarked, and formed one of their proverbial attractions. As a matter of fact, there always have been women of great accomplishments and strong talents for business in India. At this moment one of the best administered native States has been ruled during two generations by ladies—the successive Begums of Bhopal; many of the most ably managed of the great landed properties or zemindaris of Bengal are entirely in the hands of females; while, in commercial life, women conduct, through their agents, lucrative and complicated concerns. But the idea of giving girls a school education, as a necessary part of their training for life, did not originate in India until quite within our own days. The intellectual activity of Indian women is very keen, and it seems frequently to last longer in life than the mental energies of the men. The intelligence of the Indian women is certainly far in advance of their opportunities of obtaining school instruction, and promises well for the education of the future.

The earliest efforts to impart education upon the European

system to the women of India were directed by Christian missionaries. The commencement was made at Bombay by the American missionaries in 1823, and in 1841 the Rev. John Anderson, and his colleagues in the Scotch Mission (shortly afterwards the Free Church Mission) at Madras, began to instruct Hindu women, opening the first school for the purpose in 1845. These two Presidencies are still ahead of other parts of India as regards female education. According to the census of 1881, the proportion of girls under instruction in Madras was 1 in 403 of the female population, and the proportion of women able to read and write, but not under instruction, was 1 in 166 of the female population. The corresponding figures in the other four larger Provinces were :

Bombay, 1 in 431, and 1 in 244.

Bengal, 1 in 976, and 1 in 568.

The North-Western Provinces and Oudh, 1 in 2,169, and 1 in 981.

Punjab, 1 in 1,416, and 1 in 1,028.

Taking the whole of India, the percentage of girls under instruction to the female population in 1882 was .85, of whom .55 were in primary schools. The Report shows that during the last ten years there has been a great aggregate increase of female education.

This increase has been fairly spread over the larger Provinces, with the exception of the Punjab and the North-Western Provinces and Oudh. The next feature which deserves attention is the very large proportion of effort which is devoted to the primary education of girls, as compared with their secondary or higher instruction. In this matter the action of the departmental authorities, missionary societies, and other managers of girls' schools, seems in complete accord with the present necessities of female education in India. With the exception of Bengal, and in a much smaller degree of Madras, secondary education for girls is entirely in the hands of missionary bodies and native managers. The third feature calling for notice is the different view taken in different Provinces with regard to the function of direct Government agency in the matter of female primary education. Throughout India, the total number of pupils in Government girls' primary schools is 23,850, or one-half of those in aided or unaided schools under inspection, namely, 58,570. In Bengal, Assam, and Coorg, there are no Government primary schools for girls. In Madras, the pupils in the Government primary schools for girls are only about one-ninth of those in the aided and unaided primary schools under

inspection. In the North-Western Provinces, Oudh, and the Panjab, the proportion is 3.5 to 5. In Bombay, the number of pupils in the departmental primary schools for girls is 11,338, against 40,621 in aided and unaided primary schools. In the Central Provinces, the girls in Government primary schools amount to 2,676, or five times the number (namely, £32) in aided and unaided schools under inspection. In the Haidarabad Assigned Districts, the former are three times as numerous as the latter.

The recommendations made on this subject by the Commission, 27 in number, have already been published in a former number of this *Journal*. The most important are those which relate to greater liberality in the rules for granting aid to girls' schools, the liberal encouragement of infant schools or classes, the establishment of additional normal schools, the expediency of holding out liberal inducements to the wives of schoolmasters to qualify as teachers, the preparation of suitable text-books for girls' schools, the larger employment of female inspecting agency, and last, but not least, the recognition of grants for zanana teaching as a proper charge upon the public funds.

On this last-mentioned point the Commission observe that the mere establishment of schools will by no means suffice to bring about the general spread of education among the women of India.

Public sentiment keeps them secluded in znanas, many from their infancy, and many more from the age of eleven or twelve. From this it follows that the education of girls of the better classes cannot be carried on in schools to anything like completion, and that in the case of many it cannot even be begun. Some plan is needed for conveying instruction to those who cannot leave their homes to seek for it, and for prosecuting further the teaching which may have been begun in schools. Agencies for zanana teaching are conducting this work with considerable success. Actuated in many cases by religious motives, zanana teachers have brought some measure of secular instruction into the homes of those who would otherwise have been wholly debarred from it. We see no reason why this secular instruction, imparted under the supervision of ladies worthy of confidence, should not be recognised and assisted, so far as it can be tested by a proper inspecting agency. Rules for aid to zanana teaching should be drawn up in consultation with those who conduct the work, and should be such as to assist them substantially in extending their operations so far as concerns secular teaching. Associations have

arisen in some places, aiming at the extension and encouragement of female education. These also might be encouraged as far as they produce secular results. In order that these results may be fairly estimated, it seems necessary that the services of sympathetic and well-qualified inspectresses should be largely made use of. In the present condition of female education in India, the visits of inspectors are sometimes not only futile, but a positive hindrance to progress. And even where this is not so, a woman is generally much better able to deal with little girls than any man can be. With respect to the management also of girls' schools, it seems most desirable to obtain the help, wherever possible, of ladies who take an interest in the subject, whether native or European. Nor is the object likely to be attained unless interest is promoted among native gentlemen by giving them a share in the supervision of the schools. Those who show their sympathy by sending their own daughters to school are more likely to assist in directing the movement, and in rendering it popular among their neighbours.

In connexion with this subject, it may be noted here that at Madras a system of home teaching, under the direction of the National Indian Association, has been commenced with a very fair measure of success. Three teachers are at present employed in this way, giving instruction to 29 pupils at their homes.* The report of the Inspectress upon the work done is given in the July number of this *Journal*. It is stated that in five of the houses at which these teachers attend the Tamil and Telugu magazine *Janavinodini* is taken regularly, and is read by the ladies. In several houses *Suguna Bhodini*, a new magazine intended for Hindu women, is also taken. The most noteworthy fact in the examination of the pupils was the proficiency of some of them in the study of hygiene.

One of the concluding chapters of the Report deals with legislation. Upon this subject there is a very general agreement among the members of the Commission that some legislation is necessary, and the majority (a narrow majority, it is stated) recommend that the legislation shall include every description of education; while the minority, including the President, contend that any measure so comprehensive is premature, that it will be very difficult to frame, and still more difficult to work, and that at present legislation should be restricted to primary education, the practical object being

* Since the last Report, two more teachers have been appointed.

to ensure that a due proportion of the funds raised by local and municipal taxation should be devoted to primary education. At present Bómbay is the only Province in which the existing law contains any such provision, and there it applies only to local, and not to municipal funds. The Madras Local Funds Act of 1871 contained a provision for the levy of a light house-tax, specially intended for educational purposes; but before this tax had been imposed in more than a very few places, its levy was discontinued, áť the instance of the Supreme Government, on the alleged, but, as I hold erroneous ground, that it was so unpopular as to be politically inexpedient. The arguments of the minority, who desired to limit legislation, for the present at all events, to primary education, are stated in the following extracts:

The preparation of any specific Act dealing with the whole subject, even of primary education, would be a matter of extreme difficulty, and absolute novelty in India, and therefore should be undertaken tentatively and with caution. Were the Commission to assent to a proposal so limited, a measure might probably be elaborated in such detail as at least to combine existing orders of principle, and so to form a basis capable of ready adaptation by the Local Government concerned to the circumstances of each Province. Successful legislation in the matter of primary education might be a proper prelude to extended legislation affecting higher education; but any failure in a large measure might discredit the whole scheme, so that the plea of extending the project would probkably be the best method of opposing it.

The basis of all legislation is necessity, or expediency so strong as for practical purposes to be equivalent to necessity. But the relation of the State to the community in the matter of primary education differs from that in high education. In the former, the State must do most where there is least local effort; in the latter, the converse is the case. In the former, State action, more or less extended according to ability and available funds, has been held and declared to be necessary, and on a par with the maintenance of order or the repression of crime; in the latter, State action, however desirable, is not necessary, or in the same sense and to the same extent expedient.

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On financial grounds, it was argued that funds for primary education in every Province of India, except Bengal, are chiefly derived from local taxation. If the administration of this income is to be entrusted to numerous local bodies, some control is

required for the sake of uniform administration, and such control will best be secured by an Act.

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The funds for secondary and higher education will in most Provinces still be administered by a central Department under Government, which may be unwilling to tie its own hands, as there is less necessity for limiting a control which is centralised, and not diffused over numerous small agencies.

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The problems involved in legislating for primary education are comparatively simple; those involved in secondary education are very complex.

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The numerous Boards will require legislation in order to define their rights and duties, and the limits of their responsibility as trustees to Government for the public funds entrusted to them.

The above are the main arguments upon which a large minority of the Commission rested their proposal to restrict legislation to primary education. The majority contended, on the other hand, that if it were granted that separate legislation was necessary, it should cover the whole field of education. They held that some legal validity should be given to the Grant-in-Aid Code, so that the action of the Department might be controlled. "It was also thought desirable that the director and the inspecting Officers of the Department should have a legal status, so as to define the extent and limits of their authority over aided and other institutions, their teachers and managers—points which are now frequently involved in doubt." But the chief, and in fact the real ground, of the opposition to the proposal that legislation should be restricted to primary education, would seem to have been an apprehension on the part of the majority of the Commission that secondary education would be subordinated to primary. Their view was that "for the Commission to declare that primary education was the only part worth legislating about, and that higher education might be left to take care of itself, would be injurious to the country and its progress, and would arouse grave and well-founded apprehension in the minds of the people, who looked to the Despatches of 1854 and 1859 as guaranteeing the continued support of the Government, not only to primary, but to higher education." It is impossible

to study the Report without perceiving that the apprehensions which actuated the majority on this question, are not altogether without foundation. It is abundantly manifest that there is in certain quarters an almost fanatical desire to limit the educational operations of the State in India to primary education, and to leave all higher education to take care of itself. The writer of this chapter of the report, has long been one of the chief exponents of this view of the education question. But these facts are not sufficient to counterbalance the grave objections which attach to any such elaborate legislative enactment, or series of enactments, as are contemplated by the majority of the Commission. The arguments of the minority on this point appear to be sound and practical. It may, indeed, be questioned whether any separate Education Acts are needed, and whether all the requirements of the case would not be met by instructing the several Local Governments to amend the Local Funds and Municipal Acts of their respective Provinces by declaring, as is done in the Bombay Local Funds Act with reference to primary education, what proportion of the local or municipal funds shall be devoted to education, or—and this, I am disposed to think, would be the preferable arrangement—by empowering the Local Governments to determine from time to time, by executive orders, what that proportion should be. To limit the grants made from such funds for educational purposes to primary education, would, I think, be a mistake; for it might often be desirable that municipal or local funds should be applied to the support of a secondary school. The Commission, as a body, do not advocate the enactment of any general law on the subject applicable to the whole of India; but both the President and Mr. Howell favour this idea, holding that “a short Act by the Supreme Government declaring general principles is not only possible, but is shown by the repeated failure of executive orders to be desirable.” The proposal seems to be altogether unpractical, and it may well be doubted whether it would have been brought forward at all if its sponsors had taken the trouble to draft a Bill embodying their views. Had they done so, they would probably have discovered the utter hopelessness of embodying in the form of a law which any jurist would accept, the general principles which are to govern the administration of education throughout the Indian Empire.

It has often been said of late years that there has been a tendency on the part of the authorities in India to legislate overmuch. From my own experience and observation I am disposed to think that this allegation, although not justly applicable in all the cases with reference to which it has been advanced, is not altogether without foundation; but be this as it may, I cannot conceive a more obvious instance of legislation, not only unnecessary, but certain to cause serious embarrassment, than any attempt to embody in a legislative enactment, whether by the Supreme Government or by the Local Governments, the provisions of an educational Code regulating the conditions upon which grants are to be made to educational institutions of every description, the status of the directing and inspecting officers, the extent and limits of their authority, the proportion of the State funds applicable to education which should be appropriated to its several branches, and the thousand and one other matters which would have to be dealt with in a comprehensive Code such as certain members of the Commission apparently demand. It must be borne in mind that in one important respect the education question stands upon a different footing in India from that which it occupies in most European countries. No person with any knowledge of India would seriously propose that education in that country should be made compulsory; and thus at least one important reason for legislating on the subject of education which exists elsewhere, is absent in India. But apart from this, it is an essential condition of efficient Indian administration that a wide discretion should be left to the executive, and there are probably few branches of the administration in which the exercise of such a discretionary power is more needed, than it is in directing the education of the various races and classes with which the Government in India have to deal. The proper authority to exercise control over the action of the Department is the Government—the Local Government in the first instance, and in the event of default on the part of the Local Government, the Governor-General in Council; and in the last resort, the Secretary of State. Those general principles which the President and Mr. Howell desire to see embodied “in a short Act by the Supreme Government” can be equally well, and indeed far better, expressed and enforced by executive orders. If in the past the principles laid down have not been sufficiently

observed, their enforcement will not be facilitated by promulgating them in the general, and more or less vague, language which alone could be used in a formal legislative enactment, treating of such a subject with reference to the whole of India. On this question of the alleged non-observance of orders there has been a good deal of exaggeration, a defect from which the Report of the Commission, admirable as it is in most respects, is not on this point altogether free; but for the correction of the evil referred to, in so far as it may exist, it will be far better to rely upon the determination of the executive authorities to enforce by the means at their disposal, and with a due regard to the circumstances of each case, the observance of the policy prescribed by the Secretary of State. All that is needed is that the Local Governments should have full power to control the expenditure of the funds raised by local bodies, and that the Supreme Government and the Secretary of State should exercise due supervision over the action of the Local Governments. In order to secure the first of these objects, legislative powers, though of a very simple character, are necessary. The second is essentially a matter of administrative control, for which the existing legislative sanctions amply suffice.

The last chapter of the Report contains an interesting and instructive summary of educational finance. It shows the proportion in which public funds (including under that category provincial, local and municipal revenues), fees, and other sources of income contribute to the total expenditure on education, the distribution of the funds derived from these various sources over the various branches of educational expenditure and among the various agencies at work, and the extent to which public funds are expended upon education of every description in the several Provinces. The total expenditure on education throughout India, so far as the Commission have been able to ascertain, is Rs. 182,15,16\$, or, omitting certain branches of education which were excluded from the scope of the Commission's enquiry, Rs. 161,10,282. Some of the statistics given are very suggestive, indicating, as they do, the remarkable differences which exist in the administrative systems of the various Provinces. For instance, in the matter of school fees, the proportions in which this source of income contributes to the cost of education in the five

largest Provinces* range from a percentage of 37·42 in Bengal to a percentage of 4·65 in the North-western Provinces and Oudh. Hardly less remarkable are the differences in the extent to which local funds are appropriated to education in the several Provinces,† ranging from 20·9 per cent. in the Punjab to nothing in Bengal, where as yet the revenues realised by local rates are not by law chargeable with education.

In the case of municipal‡ contributions the diversities, though considerable, are not quite so great; but there is a general want of liberality on the part of the Municipal Corporations in contributing to the educational requirements of their towns, the Punjab being "the only Province in which there is any exception to this general rule."

The absence of uniformity which characterizes the contributions of local funds to education is equally marked in the treatment of those funds in other respects. The Commission say :

In Northern India, with the exception of Bengal, their proceeds are first credited to provincial funds, from which a part of them is allotted for expenditure on education. But in Bombay, Bengal and Madras the local fund revenue is a distinct fund, administered by local bodies more or less independent of the Provincial Government, and to this distinct fund all unexpended balances lapse at the close of the year. Bombay, however, is the only Province in India which has taken a further step in separating the educational share of its local funds from the general local fund account. In that Province education is declared by statutory rule to be entitled to a minimum share of local fund revenue. The schoolmasters, who are paid from this fund, have their pensions provided from the same fund, and the claims of education are fully protected from competition with the claims of public works or of the other great services supplied from the local fund. In other parts of India education receives any balance which can be spared for its wants from the general fund; and if the department fails to spend its allotment in the year, the unspent balance lapses to the general fund, and in Northern India to provincial revenues. In most Provinces the distribution of the share of local rates allotted to education is

* Madras, 31·6; Bombay, 15·12; Bengal, 37·42; North-western Provinces and Oudh, 4·65; Punjab, 7·54.

† Madras, 6·2; Bombay, 18·6; Bengal, *nil*; North-western Provinces and Oudh, 7·2; Punjab, 20·9.

‡ Madras, 3·8; Bombay, 1·2; Bengal, 4·8; North-western Provinces and Oudh, 2·04; Punjab, 5·6.

made through the agency of the Local Boards, whose members are more or less subject to official control. It is only necessary to add that local fund revenues, like the provincial revenues, are fairly elastic. Education has, therefore, an equitable claim upon the natural increment; but in No Province of India, except Bombay, is this claim recognised by rule having the force of law.

It is here, as I have already observed, in the case of these local public bodies, that legislation is required, in order that they may be compelled to make adequate contributions for education, secondary as well as primary, but at all events for the latter, in their respective localities.

The distribution of the expenditure derived from public funds—*i.e.*, provincial revenues, local rates and municipal rates—over the various branches of educational charge, amounting in the aggregate to Rs. 91,23,882, is in the following proportion :—

Collegiate education	8·08
Secondary	"	18·17
Primary	"	39·72
Professional	"	4·11
Direction—Inspection, University, &c., education	29·92

The Commission advocate greater liberality from public funds, whether provincial, local, or municipal, in their expenditure on education, and especially in aiding private enterprise; and in connexion with this point they draw attention to the fact, that while institutions under private management contribute in fees nearly 13 per cent. of the entire expenditure, and departmental institutions barely 7 per cent., the latter received 49·94 per cent. of the expenditure, and the former only 20·14.

"If," the Commission go on to say, "the principle that assistance from public funds should bear some proportion to local contributions is to be fairly carried out, it is obvious that greater liberality must be shown in future in dealing with the claims of private enterprise. In other chapters we have advocated the extension of primary education, while we have deprecated any check to more advanced education. Our recommendations for transferring certain departmental institutions to private effort, and for raising fees, wherever possible, in all classes of institutions, may effect considerable economy; but we believe that if the Indian Government are to recognise adequately the great task before them, increased

expenditure will be required." "The tables given in this chapter will show that various funds contribute more liberally in some Provinces than in others to the cost of education, and the liberality of one part of India may afford an example to Local Governments or to Local Boards elsewhere. We believe that still greater efforts are generally demanded, and in support of this view we need only call attention to the return of institutions and scholars given in General Table (2a) at the end of this Report, which shows that in the area to which our enquiries are confined, containing 859,844 square miles, with 552,379 villages and towns, inhabited by 202,604,080 persons, there were only 112,218 schools and 2,643,978 Indian children and adults at school in 1881-82." "The most advanced Province of India still fails to reach 75 per cent. of its male children of the school-going age; 98 per cent. of its female children of that age; while in one Province, with its total population of both sexes exceeding 44 millions, nearly 92 boys in every hundred are growing up in ignorance, and female education has hardly begun to make any progress. The census returns are equally conclusive in showing the magnitude of the work that remains before education in India can be placed upon a national basis. Taking the male population of Ajmir and of the nine Provinces with which our Report deals, which exceeds 103 millions, about 94½ millions are wholly illiterate; while of the female population, numbering about 99,700,000, no less than 99½ millions are returned as unable to read or write."

The task which the Government of India has before it, in providing for a population of two hundred millions education of every description, ranging from that which is tested by the University examinations to the elementary instruction imparted in the humble village school, is most assuredly a task of no common magnitude, and is encompassed by many and grave difficulties. If the question were one which could be treated without any reference to financial considerations, the obstacles in the way of rapid progress would still be very great; but when it is considered that India, notwithstanding her remarkable material progress in the last half century, is still a comparatively poor country, with at least one of her principal sources of revenue very precarious in its character, with heavy responsibilities devolving upon the Government for the development of the resources of the country, for the prevention of famines, for

the maintenance of peace and order, and for repelling foreign aggression—responsibilities which, in the not far distant future, may be enormously increased—it is plain that the cost of such comprehensive measures as would be necessary to produce any considerable diminution of the vast mass of ignorance to which the Commission draw attention in the preceding remarks, altogether precludes the expectation of rapid progress. The sum which is now spent upon education in India from public funds, including under that head grants from the public Treasury and those made from local and municipal rates, is less than a million sterling; while in Great Britain and Ireland, with a population amounting to less than thirty-two millions, the grants from the Imperial Treasury for education, science and art, and the education rates levied by the School Boards, represent an expenditure considerably exceeding six millions sterling. It is evident that the Indian Education Commission do not anticipate the probability of any considerable additions to the grants now made in India for purposes of education from the provincial revenues; and although it ought to be possible to ensure greater uniformity, and in some Provinces greater liberality in the grants to education from the local rates, and larger grants everywhere from the revenues of municipalities, it must not be forgotten that the demands upon these bodies for other most essential objects, such as roads, drainage, and other sanitary purposes, are very heavy; that local rates, which from the nature of the case must largely take the form of direct taxation, are in India extremely unpopular, and that consequently any considerable expansion of the funds derived from these sources must necessarily be a work of time. It seems obvious that, in these circumstances, many years, if not many generations, must pass away before, to use the words of the Commission, “education in India can be placed upon a national basis.” But it is not the less incumbent upon the Government of India, and upon all the authorities concerned, to proceed earnestly and with confidence upon this great and important work, expending to the best purpose the funds at their disposal, economizing where economy is possible, utilizing to the utmost every agency that may be available, and ever mindful of the fact that, notwithstanding the magnitude of the task before them, the progress which has already been made, small as it may appear when tested only by numerical results, holds out very decided encourage-

ment for the future. To all who are engaged in this important duty the Report of the Education Commission cannot fail to be a most useful guide. It was remarked the other day by a correspondent of a London newspaper that the mission entrusted to the President and Members of this Commission was a very "pretentious" one, and that the information embodied in their Report contained nothing that was not already perfectly well known. It would be difficult to frame a more unfair and unfounded criticism. However persons may differ—and for my part I have not scrupled to express my dissent from some of the recommendations of the Commission, and from some of the opinions expressed by them both as to the past and as to the future working of the Education Department—it seems to me impossible to deny that a vast mass of most valuable facts has been collected by the Commission, and has been presented in a form which throws a new light upon many questions of considerable importance. This Report, in fact, is a compendium of information which no man ought to be without, who takes any practical interest in the future of Indian education.

ALEXR. J. ARBUTHNOT.

NOTE.

The following statistics, extracted from the tables appended to the Report of the Commission, may be of some interest to the readers of the foregoing article and of its predecessors:—

Area in square miles of British Provinces referred to in the Report, 859,844.

Population—Males, 103,127,669; females, 99,476,411; total, 202,604,080.

Number of Colleges and Schools—For boys, 109,521; for girls, 2,697; total, 112,218.

Number of Scholars—Boys, 2,517,629; girls, 126,349; total, 2,644,078.

Percentage of Scholars to population of school-going age—Boys, 16.28; girls, .85.

Departmental institutions, 15,172; scholars, 733,973. Aided institutions, 59,249; scholars, 1,256,147. Unaided institutions under inspection, 12,631; scholars, 294,488.

Classification of Scholars according to race or creed—Hindus, 1,782,955; Muhammadans, 399,711; Sikhs, 9,674; Parsis,

8,299; native Christians, 47,208; Europeans and Eurasians, 1,831; * others, 34,930.

Classification of Scholars according to languages learnt—English, 198,554; a classical language, 144,987; a vernacular language, 2,215,771.

Classification of Institutions and Scholars according to standard of instruction—

COLLEGIATE.

Departmental institutions ...	38 ...	Scholars	4,252
Aided " ...	23 ...	"	2,246
Unaided do. under inspection	9 ...	"	704
Total... ..	70 ...	"	7,205

SECONDARY.

Departmental institutions ...	1,363 ...	"	62,525
Aided " ...	1,863 ...	"	111,018
Unaided do. under inspection	680 ...	"	37,819
Total... ..	3,906 ...	"	211,352

PRIMARY.

Departmental institutions ...	13,637 ...	"	663,915
Aided " ...	57,341 ...	"	1,141,844
Unaided do. under inspection	11,938 ...	"	255,782
Total... ..	82,916 ...	"	2,061,541

PROFESSIONAL AND TECHNICAL.†

Departmental institutions ...	134 ...	"	3,281
Aided " ...	22 ...	"	1,039
Unaided do. under inspection	4 ...	"	180
Total... ..	160 ...	"	4,490

EXPENDITURE ON EDUCATION.

Rs.

From public funds	91,23,882
" fees	37,86,006
" other sources	32,00,394
Total	161,10,282

* This includes only those Europeans and Eurasians who attend schools established for natives. Schools for Europeans and Eurasians were excluded from the Commission's enquiry.

† These are mostly Training Schools and Classes for training Masters and Mistresses.

DISTRIBUTION OF PUBLIC FUNDS AMONG THE SEVERAL
BRANCHES OF EDUCATIONAL EXPENDITURE.

	Rs.	
Collegiate education	7,36,974 or 8·08 per cent.	
Secondary "	16,56,602 " 18·17 "	
Primary "	36,24,000 " 39·72 "	
Professional and technical education	3,75,779 " 4·11 "	
Universities, direction, inspec- tion, &c.	27,30,527 " 29·92 "	
		Rs.
Expenditure from public funds under Grant- in-aid rules		18,50,484
Proportion of grants to total expenditure from public funds		18·17
Proportion of grants to total expenditure from all sources on aided institutions		31·74
		A. J. A.

OPENING OF THE INDIAN INSTITUTE
AT OXFORD.

The Indian Institute was opened on October 14th, in the presence of the Vice-Chancellor, the Proctors, and a large audience.

In his address, the Boden Professor of Sanskrit (Mr. Monier Williams) said that they were met to impart the first pulsations of life to the stone building in which they were assembled by making the Institute begin its appointed work—the work of facilitating Indian studies; the work of producing a better appreciation of the languages, literatures, and industries of India; the work of qualifying young Englishmen for Indian careers, and of qualifying young Indians to serve their own country effectively. It had been said, Why spend so much money on bricks and mortar? Why give stones when knowledge was asked for? But it was forgotten that a material centre was essential to all educational work. The Professor then expressed his belief that those who had intrusted him with the management of the funds so generously subscribed towards the Indian Institute would also

wish to intrust him with the first utterances within its walls, and would be pleased that his first words were uttered in an attempt to reply to the question, "How could the University of Oxford best fulfil her duty towards India?" This was a question the solution of which the peculiar circumstances of our position in India made it impossible for a great national University to evade. Statistics proved that out of the total number of 903 members of the covenanted Civil Service appointed from 1856 to 1879, at least 618 were University men. Hence it followed that a large number of the rulers of India were brought under the training of the University. Our position in India was not that of colonists. The climate was fatal to the existence in an unmixed condition of any Anglo-Saxon settlers for more than two or three generations. We were present in India as rulers and administrators, and as nothing more. The only parallel case was the occupation of Britain by the Romans; but the native population of England at that time could scarcely have exceeded a million, whereas the native population of India had risen to 254 millions, while scattered among those overwhelming masses were the ruling class of, at most, 140,000 Britons—civilians and military men all told—and of these, little more than 900 members of the covenanted service were the actual administrators of the government of the country. This scattering of a few selected British rulers over the surging ocean of Indian life was like choosing 900 scientific men, dotting them about in small ships on the surface of the Atlantic, and requiring them by the application of chemical oils to maintain smooth water amid storm-driven waves and conflicting currents. When these men arrived in India—sometimes before the age of 20—they had to choose between becoming Judges or Collectors, and in ten or twelve years afterwards the welfare of perhaps a million souls might depend on their administrative energy and ability. It might happen that a youth who in England would never have risen above mediocrity might become a Commissioner, a Lieutenant-Governor, a Governor, or even by a remote possibility Governor-General of all India. How important was it to send out such men well-educated according to the true sense of the word; and where could a better training be had than at our Universities? Nowhere else was the whole man better drawn out into well-balanced and symmetrical proportions;

nowhere else was there the same wholesome attrition and collision between opposite characters and varying intellects. It was on this account that the Government encouraged the Indian Civil Service probationers—who were selected at an annual competitive examination in London—to place themselves under University discipline. They might choose any one of eight Universities. Those who elected to come to Oxford were very imperfectly subject to the rules of the University, and derived little benefit from University life. They had to serve two masters, and their London masters were the more exacting. They were not required to pass the University examinations, or to take their degrees, or to carry away with them any University stamp of any kind. The Professor thought that if the present low limit of age ($17\frac{1}{2}$ to $19\frac{1}{2}$) was retained for the competitive examination, every selected candidate should be required to reside for three years (instead of two) at a University. No option should be allowed; but every one should be compelled to take his degree of B.A. at the end of that period. He trusted that the time might not be far distant when the Civil Service Commissioners would consent to leave the proficiency of the Indian probationers to be tested by the Universities, and might accept their examinations in lieu of all, or at least of some, of those now conducted in London. The University of Oxford had established special honour schools of mathematics, natural science, law, history, and theology. It had provided special teachers for the Indian Civilians. It ought now to establish two other Honour schools—a school of Oriental *literæ humaniores*, and a school of modern Indian languages. The Indian vernaculars were neglected and suffered to deteriorate by the Government Universities in India, but their cultivation ought to be encouraged by Oxford. The masses in India could only be educated and civilised through the medium of the spoken languages. It was the duty of Oxford to help in training all intended for Indian careers—not merely the selected Indian Civilians, but chaplains, doctors, lawyers, military men, and others. There was an Oxford Mission at Calcutta which aimed at influencing the higher thought and culture of the educated classes. The Professor had seen the members of the Mission at their work, and was deeply impressed by its reality, but thought they would be better prepared for coping with the subtle arguments of Pundits had Oxford a Reader in

Indian Philosophy, who would lecture on its relation to the philosophical and religious thought of Europe. It was also the duty of Oxford to give some knowledge of India to its ordinary students, who might, as members of Parliament, exercise control over the destinies of India. Formerly, in the absence of telegraphy, Indian administrators were allowed much independence. Now, the interposition of Parliament caused administrative complications. How important was it that the members of Parliament trained at Oxford should imbibe correct notions about India! The Indian Institute was to be a centre of union, inquiry, and instruction for all interested in Indian studies, or preparing for Indian careers. Its lecture-rooms, library, and museum were, by their inter-communication, to aid and illustrate each other. The Professor had received grants and gifts of Indian books and manuscripts nearly sufficient to fill the library, and grants and gifts of objects more than sufficient to fill the half of the museum, now finished. Some had supposed that the Indian Institute was intended only for Indians. This was as great a mistake as to suppose it was intended only for Englishmen. The Professor, when in India, had proposed to the Viceroy that the Institute should form a home for deserving natives, who would be supported there by Government scholarships. Lord Ripon and his Council had agreed to his proposal; but Lord Kimberley, while sanctioning the scholarships, had refused to attach them to any particular institution. It was to be hoped that the scholars would still be attracted to the Oxford Indian Institute. Professor Monier Williams concluded by expressing his hope that a spirit of friendly co-operation would animate all who had to teach within its walls, and that the day of small beginnings would increase in brightness till its illuminating power became an acknowledged factor in the benefits which the University sought to confer.

At the conclusion of Professor Williams's address, the Vice-Chancellor said he was there to open the building, but before doing so he felt he was only expressing the feelings of all present when he thanked the Professor for his interesting and suggestive address. He added that it was entirely due to the indefatigable energy and simple-minded enthusiasm for India of Professor Monier Williams that the building stood there to-day. He regretted that from its half-finished condition its architectural beauty, and perhaps its usefulness,

were somewhat impaired. He agreed with the Professor that England, and, indeed, Europe, owed a great debt of gratitude to India, although perhaps in the far distance. It was necessary for Oxford first to understand and learn something about India before she attempted to train men to govern the 240 million inhabitants, with their different races, religions, and customs. He had been told that Lord Wellesley had caused the following words of Virgil to be inscribed on the portal of the college at Port William:—"Redit a nobis Aurora, diemque reducit." He concluded by formally declaring the building open, and expressing a hope that the Indian Institute would create a greater sympathy between India and England.

The building, which is from the designs of Mr. Basil Champneys, is of a modified Palladian character, with details serving to mark its Oriental uses. The interior is fitted up with much handsome Jacobean woodwork. The Holywell Street front is completed in clever adaptation to the line of the street, but three out of the five bays facing the length of Broad Street still await erection.

REVIEWS.

COLEBROOKE'S LIFE OF THE HONOURABLE MOUNTSTUART ELPHINSTONE.

(Continued from page 443.)

Elphinstone, after leaving the army, joined the camp of the Raja of Berar, and marched to Nagpoor.

In a letter to Strachey, he says:—

"I will tell you a thing that happened yesterday. The potail of a village, close to the Raja's camp, applied to me for one English sepoy to protect his village from being plundered by his own Raja's army. I believe I am the only man in the camp that pays for anything, and, in consequence, I am forced to pay well. I paid yesterday Rs. 100.* The others just go on as Holkar's army used, plunder the fields and unroof the houses."

* *Life of the Honourable Mountstuart Elphinstone.* By Sir T. E. Colebrooke, Bart., M.P. In two vols., with portraits and map. London: John Murray. 1884.

The Raja, Raghojee Bosla, who is described as an "old, fat, black, mean fellow of fifty, very heavy-looking and sad in his appearance, but quiet and civil in his manners," had been deprived by the war of his best provinces; and the first task of the new Resident was to insist on his withdrawal from the territories ceded by the treaty. This was effected at first without much difficulty; but as there was every probability of this treacherous prince renewing the war, Elphinstone was enjoined to obtain accurate information of all that passed in the Durbar, and of the numbers and distribution of the Raja's troops. This information could only be supplied by the ministers themselves, and Elphinstone found himself involved in intrigues which were very distasteful to him. The menacing attitude assumed by Holkar and Sindia while the British Government was establishing its authority in the newly conquered provinces, gave fresh courage to the war party at the Court of Nagpore; and the preparations for war at length became so open that Elphinstone was obliged to take his leave and prepare for departure. The effect of this step was to bring the Raja to his senses. His excuses were accepted, and by order of the Supreme Government a negotiation for a subsidiary alliance was commenced. It proved abortive, although the Governor-General in Council "considered the conduct of the Resident in the course of these discussions to have been distinguished by an extraordinary degree of ability and address."

Elphinstone kept no journal for about two years after his arrival at Nagpore, and there is no trace of his despatches during this period at the India Office. His letters to Strachey have furnished Sir T. E. Colebrooke with the materials on which this part of his narrative is based. In one of these letters he says: "By-the-bye, I never read the Persian poets now, on account of my belief of their pernicious effects on the mind. You know I always maintained that they were the source of blue devils. In consequence of this and other things, thus far into the bosom of the rains have I lived on without melancholy." Nevertheless, a few weeks later, he sends his friend an imitation of some verses of Hafiz, with, a long disquisition on the characteristics of Persian poetry:—

"All odes are difficult to translate; so much so that I have seen few good imitations of the ancients in that sort of writing, and no good translation. If you do not mean your ode to be

the flattest and most insipid production in nature, you must aim at bold and happy expressions. These can scarce occur to any but an original writer; and when they are attempted without success, they produce either downright nonsense or obscurity at least. For the truth of this I refer you to modern odes *passim*. Half of them it would pose a sphinx to unriddle, and the other half are so cold that even an ass's hoof would not hold them. (*Vide* Plutarch's *Life of Alexander*.) Persian odes are particularly difficult. . . .

"Besides, the Persians mingle gaiety, melancholy, piety, and sublime philosophy in a way that we could not relish (what's worse, every third verse is so intrinsically bad that nothing can be made of it). Perhaps, if we read the Persian poets in the true spirit of the author, all the apparent incongruities might seem consistent and connected; but then, who of Englishmen would take pleasure in reading a Platonic poem, however well translated? Horace might—has, perhaps, connected gaiety and melancholy in one ode; but it requires consummate art to do it agreeably, and to prevent one clash of discordant feeling. How carelessly Hafiz does it! One needs but open the book to exemplify. In the first ode one verse is—

'Tinge the sacred carpet with wine,' &c.

The next is—

'What ease have I in the resting-places of life, while the bell every instant summons me to depart?'

The next is perhaps the most magnificent verse in the whole collection—

'The night is dark; how dreadful is the fear of the waves and of the whirlpool!'

"To return to the difference between Horace and Hafiz. Horace in his highest raptures writes like one inspired; Hafiz at all times like a drunken man. Bold expression, rapid description, flashes of sublimity, and transitions which a sober man cannot comprehend, make the characteristics of his best productions. . . .

"I do not know whether Meerza Nusseer (the Hukeem banshee) is not the Persian, of those I have read, who has most taste. I do not know about his genius. I suspect he is a close imitator of Jami. By-the-bye, Khyoom is a singular writer; his epigrams are far above any of those that I have read in Greek or Latin (which, by the way, are about a dozen). They are bold and often very profound thoughts in forcible language."

In the following passages he glances at Indian politics :—

"I cannot partake your joy at Lord Cornwallis being sent out. I do not think Lord Wellesley deserves to be superseded ; and I tremble at the thoughts of change of measures which must bring all the Mahrattas on us. Lord Wellesley's evident desire for peace has already had the most pernicious effects. If you want to conciliate the people, give them back their country. No other plan will succeed. If you keep it, you must fight for it. It appears to me that most mistakes in politics arise from an ignorance of the plain maxim and its corollaries ; viz., it is impossible for the same thing to be and not to be. Hang the subject ! It makes me sick. . . .

"Lord Cornwallis, I hear from good authority, is eager to purchase peace with cessions. It was a fine, splendid period just before the failures at Bhurtpoor. I thought, and think still, that we had our enemies at our mercy, and that our glory was complete ; but—

'Vertitur interea cælum et ruit oceano nox.'

Instead of splendour and victory, we are to have lessons and grumblings at the past. I know as well as anybody how ~~val~~ extensive conquests are to a constitution like ours, and that ~~that~~ it might have been well if we had never been forced into wars here ; but I cannot believe that it is possible to recede.

"In most cases you see two for my one of Lord Cornwallis. If you see one side, yet it is for the best, and that which gives the truest idea of the man. I hear with pleasure of his plainness and English manners. He has all my good sense on his side, and, what is far more, all my pedantry, prejudice, &c. ; for I find that even when I think I am taking the wisest and coolest views of modern affairs, I have always a squint towards Lyourgus ; and I entirely concur in your censure of the conduct of all affairs with Sindia and Holkar, particularly with the former. While he behaved well he was bullied ; when he did everything but murder our ambassador he was treated with kindness and respect."

Eventually terms of peace were settled with Sindia and Holkar, and Elphinstone found himself with very little to do at Nagpoor. Some of the territory wrested from the Raja of Berar was restored to him. Some official occupation was also provided by the predatory incursions of the Pindarrees, who were at one time expected to surprise Nagpoor, and on whose movements a vigilant eye had to be kept. The journal was

resumed. Hunting and hawking filled up some of his leisure moments. He took to writing poetry, and resumed his Greek studies, passing whole days shut up at first in his "little end room," and later on in a bungalow which he built at a short distance from Nagpoor, on the Canhan, and which he called "Falconer's Hall." The poetical effusions which Elphinstone sent Strachey began with a series of characters after the manner of Chaucer, followed by translations from the Persian, imitations of Hafiz, lines on the death of Nelson, and other pieces. One cannot help feeling some curiosity to see some of this poetry. No specimens are, however, given by Sir T. E. Colebrooke, who has perhaps used a wise discretion in the course which he has adopted. Elphinstone had just finished the *Iliad* (not the first time of reading that work) when he resumed the journal; and his notes show that after going through the *Electra*, *Philoctetes*, *Œdipus Tyrannus*, *Alcectis*, *Trachiniæ*, and occasionally diverging to Theocritus, Tyrtæus, and some of the elegiac poets, he attacked Thucydides, Xenophon, and some of the principal orations of Demosthenes. Elphinstone also undertook, at the suggestion of Sir James Mackintosh, some researches on the languages and dialects of the hill tribes, and prepared some vocabularies for transmission to him.

The following letter to Strachey gives us a glimpse of the Pindarree troubles:—

"It is not known what has become of the Pindarrees I mentioned, but two strong parties are collected to the northward (one at Sewny, near Chuparra), and the Raja has avowed to me his inability to cope with them, and his despair of saving Nagpoor from plunder without our assistance, which cannot be given. I am far from thinking his affairs so desperate, if he would only fight instead of negotiating. Yesterday evening I was out shooting. I had flushed and dropped the first five brace of snipe ever killed here, when a Mysore horseman came and told me the city was attacked. Although he had come full gallop, I found all the villages on the road alarmed, and the inhabitants flocking up and retiring. Finding, on my arrival, that the alarm was caused by the hasty entrance of some of the Raja's horse, I went up a hill to hear the noises; and neither Jack Straw at London Stone, nor Holkar at Poona, ever caused such an alarm. Several shops were plundered in the confusion, and the panic is scarce over yet. Last night the ministers announced to me that intelligence had been received of the

arrival of 10,000 Pindarrees at Sewny. I think it likely they will now make an attempt on this place, and the Raja seems to think so too, for he is calling in his army, which, if it arrives in time, will prevent any attack; and, to say truth, I hope it may; for, besides that I should not like to lose my books, I have a tolerable equipment of public property, which I should be sorry to see lost, and which, under this Government, I suppose would never be replaced. Otherwise I should not dislike the thing as a study, finding that I have improved in the *trepidis rebus* which I have already seen."

The solitude of Elphinstone's life at Nagpoor, and his habit of indulging in day-dreams, had at times a depressing effect on his spirits, and he began to long for a change of some kind. Two letters to Strachey depict his feelings at such moments:—

"I have left off thinking all for the worst since I got three thousand rupees a month, consequently I have got rid of Ahirman. Since I came to Nagpoor I have been dreadfully coarse and unfeeling. This I attribute in some measure to business, which forces me to deal much with common-sense, and leads me to despise refined thought; but I think it more owing to a gross manner of life (spending one's whole day in hunting, eating, talking insipid stuff, &c.), and which prevents one quitting the vulgar path—

'Atque affigit humo divinæ particulam auræ.'

Now that I spend most of the day in a little private room, where I am seldom interrupted, I sometimes read with effect, and often get warmed by things that I read, or by others that come into my mind of themselves; then I get up, and walk up and down the room; and if I get more into the spirit of it, I strike up the march in *Lodoiska*, and take wing for the seventh heaven. It signifies little what I think of, or whether I think of anything. These sensations are produced by very little, but they are glorious when excited. Alas! they won't last. The novelty will wear off; the glorious colours will fade; and I shall see the bare walls, the brown fields, and all nature in its ancient deformity.

"I have passed some days in an end room I have lately built, into which the face of business is never suffered to look. There I have been writing Europe letters, reading over the letters from Europe, and your old letters, sometimes condescending to fag at Greek, &c., but forgetting business entirely. With this preparation I was to-day writing Europe letters, and think-

ing of home; and I never passed a more delightful time than I did for an hour or two this morning, recollecting all the charms of home, the morning walks, the enchanting summer evenings, the beauties of particular scenes which I recollect, and also in recalling particular walks, conversations, &c., with people that I have not seen for a long time. A common observer would not have thought me feeling great pleasure, for I was shut up in my bedroom, and crying all the time; but I enjoyed it more than I can describe. At last I got into painful reflections, and cried in earnest, not more for some friends that are dead than over past times, sensations, and enjoyments that are gone for ever. You have had misfortune enough in the loss of relations, but you have no means of knowing how melancholy it is to lose your father and mother, and see all your brothers and sisters dispersed in consequence; to remember the tranquillity and happiness you enjoyed when you were all together, and to know that the point of union is gone, and that you can never form a family more. Perhaps the picture owes all its beauty to one's having seen it when young; and in that case it is lucky that one has no opportunity of seeing it after the illusion is dispelled. I shall certainly be thought mad if this falls into the hands of any of those people who only cry when their relations die. (Stupid rascals! because it is the custom.) By-the-bye, I do not always feel inclined to comply with this excellent custom, even though I may have liked the deceased very much; but I am rather vain of my sensibility, and am glad to find that I am not so callous an animal as I thought I was. This country has a dreadful effect on the heart. Unless you form some friendship, you have no ties on your heart at all, and at best you have little exercise for your sensibility, which must become torpid for want of action, and you stand a cold, insulated, solitary wretch."

The following passage from his journal shows his mode of spending his time at Falconer's Hall, where he had his friend Close staying with him:—

"*July 1.*—Rose at 6. Walked with Close. Put things in order. Breakfast early. Arranging again. At eight I sit down settled, undisturbed, and likely to be so. I shall throw all public and private letters, that do not require immediate answers, into a box, to be answered at Nagpoor. I shall not even read Cobbett, but forget the French, the English, the

'*Res Romanæ perituraque regna,*'

and give myself up to study as entirely as of old at Benares or Russa (*sic*). I have agreed to breakfast at half-past eight,

and instead of tiffin to have sandwiches in our room twice a day, which will not make us as stupid as a heavy tiffin would do. Read *Thucydides* to the end of Pericles' speech. I did not understand one sentence without a reference to the Latin. I shall now see what perseverance can do."

In spite of some interruptions, he finished *Thucydides* before the end of the month. He begins by being inclined to the Athenians, although he knows they do not deserve it; but the capture of Melos and the slaughter of the inhabitants find him "a complete Peloponnesian;" and he is looking "with impatience for Lysander," when he gets a letter giving the unexpected news of the mutiny of the native troops at Vellore. The journal passes for a moment from the departure of the Sicilian expedition to Colonel Gillespie and his Light Dragoons, and then goes calmly back to the narrative of Nicias's disaster. "Thucydides," he concludes, "must be a book to carry about with me. He abounds in reasoning and in useful observations. I have read the best parts of him most carefully, particularly the speeches, which generally contain the reasons of all that is related in the narrative."

He succeeded at last in getting away from Nagpoor for a time. Jenkins was appointed to act for him; and on the 26th January, 1807, Elphinstone set out with Close for Calcutta, marching through Khyraghur, Ruttunpoor, Odeypoor, and Chota Nagpoor to Burdwan, and thence proceeding by dawk to Calcutta. He was well provided with books, and occupied himself with Guicciardini's History and Italian poetry, including Petrarch, whom he read for the first time. He now made his first acquaintance with Sir Walter Scott's poetry, the *Lay of the Last Minstrel*, having reached him in a box of books.

"It suits entirely," he says, "with my love of the old language and ancient manners, and with my passion for the marvellous. I entered on it with enthusiasm, and read with alternate delight and awe till I had finished a hundred pages, when I was forced to leave off and dress for dinner."

On the following day he writes:—

"Finished the notes to the *Lay*. This poem has great merit. It contains much animated description and many passages otherwise highly poetical. The system of manners is kept up so well, and the spirit of the times is so well maintained, that one is hurried to the border and to the sixteenth century.

But it has many great faults, the principal of which is, that the most interesting parts of the poem have nothing to do with the result. Deloraine's most picturesque journey and his tremendous adventure lead to nothing. When the book is acquired, it is never used. Lord Cranstoun's goblin is at first a strange and awful personage, but he sinks into a Robin Goodfellow. This interference in Cranstoun's favour is contrary to his nature, and after all it contributes nothing to bring about the reconciliation and marriage. His pranks in the castle, and among the servants, degrade him a to mischievous imp; yet his destruction forms an important scene in the action, and is, indeed, the winding-up of the poem. On the whole the *Lay* is a solemn, strange, and mingled air, which cannot be heard without interest and pleasure."

There is no record of Elphinstone's visit to Calcutta, beyond a letter to Strachey, in which he describes the pleasure he experienced at finding himself again in the society of ladies, and gives the following account of his presentation to Lord Minto:—

"Lord Minto has had a *levée*; I have seen him there and accidentally at Lumsden's. He is a man of as courtly manners as Lord Wellesley; but though he is less lively, he is far more finished and elegant. He seems quite simple and natural. He has a good person, and stands the fatigue of a *levée* without being either exhausted or nervous. He does not appear to think of himself at all. He never appears to act condescension, but seems to be naturally mild, obliging, and unassuming. I think he will be popular; but I also believe, from his speech to Barlow, his canopy, his guards, that, *au fond*, he loves pomp, both in diction and retinue (pardon the conceit), as well as *Villainy** did. He has been very civil to Adam and my brother, but very unlucky in his attentions to me. He began his acquaintance with me at the *levée*, and to prevent my being intoxicated with his smile he changed his hand, and checked my pride 'by asking me if I was a relation of the *chairman*.' He next spoke in the most desponding way of the fate of the *Blenheim* (on board which he said he knew I had a cousin), and sent me home overwhelmed with anxiety and low spirits."

R. M. MACDONALD.

(To be continued.)

A nickname for Lord Wellesley.

THE STORY OF JEWĀD. A Romance by Ali Aziz Efendi, the Cretan. Translated from the Turkish by E. J. W. Gibb, author of *Ottoman Poems*, &c. Wilson and McCormick, Glasgow.

The author of *Ottoman Poems*, Mr. E. J. W. Gibb, has recently published a translation of a Turkish romance entitled *The Story of Jewād*. His peculiar relish for Turkish, his knowledge, his penetration into its subtleties, and, above all, his wonderful power of conveying them into English without spoiling in the least their native flavour, were eminently displayed in his poems, which were so highly eulogized by the *Athenæum* and some other great literary publications. This time he has given proof of his talents in the rendering of the prose-work before us with great vigour, and decidedly with increased experience. Only those who are familiar with the peculiarities of the Eastern style, and its utter dissimilarity to the European mode of writing, can comprehend the enormous difficulties which impede the path of one who attempts to clothe an Oriental book with an English garb. Only such can appreciate the dignified merits which characterize, and the striking success which has attended, Mr. Gibb's translation. The Turkish diction both in form and spirit has been scrupulously maintained, and in its English complexion looks extremely bewitching, specially to an Eastern eye. As we read we imagine that Mr. Gibb by some magic power has, as it were, transported a delightful garden from Turkey and planted it on English soil, and with such great dexterity that the flowers of diverse kinds and hues preserve in an undiminished degree their native scent and colour; we may even say that, watered by his skilful hand, they flourish with redoubled freshness and beauty in this unfavourable climate. The book is handsomely bound, and is printed in large type on very good paper.

For fear of spoiling the work, as well as on account of want of space and time, we refrain from producing the plot, which extends over 238 pages. But we must add that, as revealing the light in which occult sciences and their practitioners were regarded in Turkey, as unfolding the working of magic ceremonies and Oriental spiritualism, and giving an

insight into a large section of life in the Ottoman capital towards the close of the last century, the romance can hardly fail to excite considerable interest, and to invite the admiration from all quarters which it fully deserves.

HAMID ALI.

THE STRI BODH, OR FEMALE INSTRUCTOR, Bombay.

THE *Stri Bodh* is a magazine started twenty years ago by some Parsee gentlemen interested in female education for the purpose of supplying instructive and entertaining reading for the young ladies of their community. The number before us has been written entirely by Parsee ladies. Among the contributions are two by Miss Putlibai Wadia (who has received Her Majesty's gracious permission to translate her last book); one on the heroism of Grace Darling, the other on the brave conduct of a Frenchwoman in rescuing four persons from danger. Mrs. K. Pestonjee Doctor, writes on the Microscopic World, and Miss Zerbanoo on the Effects of Kindness. Other articles consist of tales, said to be adapted from the English. Miss Sherin gives a short contribution on Presence of Mind, and Miss Meherbai on the Fidelity of the Dog. We give the following preface by the Editor, Mr. K. N. Kabraji :

AN EXPLANATION.—As a novelty, we rejoice to announce that we issue our present number entirely compiled by Native ladies. We are desirous of encouraging lady writers, and we have continually received contributions from many of them. Hence we have submitted this whole issue of our magazine to the finer pens of our fair assistants, in order to make room for all their articles.

When this *Stri Bodh* magazine took its birth, twenty-eight years ago, as an humble aid to Female Education and Female Reform, there was hardly known a single Parsee lady capable of carrying on writing for the public. We ourselves never expected in those days to see a whole number of ours issued by ladies, so soon after the expiration of but two decades of our existence.

At the time of our birth, female education was only in its first beginnings. There existed at that time a strong prejudice against educating our girls; people had no idea whatever of *paying* for the education of their daughters; not one female

teacher was in existence; and even male teachers had to exercise a spirit of philanthropy in having to teach girls at our female schools without any salary. To-day, within thirty years of that time, there is created a class of female contributors towards a whole issue of this magazine.

And their number is not limited to these fair contributors only. We can count on our fingers a hundred Parsee ladies able enough thus to wield their pens in Gujarati. This is a certain proof of our progress in female education. This number of the *Stri Bodh* adds a positive proof to a great number of others to show that female education among us is not quite so showy or superficial as some people try to represent. The present issue is an indirect but ample reply to the vain slanderers of "the Parsee Girl of the Period."

We do not mean to say that the education of our girls has attained perfection. But we merely want to show that, in comparison with the very brief period during which the tree of female education has existed, the fruits that have grown up are far beyond our expectation, and are such as we ought to be contented with. It is in one way a satisfactory fact that the articles published in the present number are for the most part taken by their fair writers from the English. This is to show how the education of ladies is on the increase, not only in Gujarati, but also in English.

Our readers will see that, in spite of all this being the production of the infant pens of the rising generation of our woman-kind, though of short experience, some of our female writers are capable of making a better figure in writing than a great number of our male writers of the day. To avoid a sameness, and to add variety in their writings, we have taken care to preserve the miscellaneous character of the articles in the magazine. And we hope, therefore, that in making over a whole issue to the hands of our sisters, the interest of the usual reading supplied to our fair readers is not lessened.

We thank all the writers for their trouble, and trust they will continue to exercise their pens for the benefit of themselves and their sisters. We shall be happy to make all possible room for their writings. The only suggestion we have to offer is, that in addition to their reliance on English writers, they should accustom themselves to original composition as well. We shall be particularly glad to receive contributions of poems composed by Native ladies.—*Ed. Stri Bodh.*

MADRAS BRANCH OF THE NATIONAL INDIAN ASSOCIATION.

The Annual Meeting of the Madras Branch of the National Indian Association was held at Madras on August 23rd, Mr. H. B. Grigg, Director of Public Instruction, in the Chair.

The Chairman, in his opening speech, spoke of the usefulness of the work which, with limited means, the Association carried out. He referred in detail to the Report of the Madras Branch, then before the Meeting, and we take the following abstract of Mr. Grigg's remarks from the *Madras Mail* :

"The objects of the Association would be attended to in the order of their importance. It was now eighteen months since the girls' schools of the Maharajah of Vizianagram had been confided to the working of the Association and placed under its control. Three teachers were already engaged for the Home Education of native ladies. That branch was at present under the superintendence of Miss Eddes, who voluntarily undertook the duties, in addition to her own proper work in the girls' schools, without any extra remuneration. The best thanks of the Association were due to her for this. To give full scope to the proper working of the home education system, it was necessary to engage the services of an English lady, but at present the means of the Association were not quite adequate to meet the charges that would be incurred thereby. Mrs. Brander had started a fund for the purpose, and the Maharajah of Travancore had subscribed liberally towards it; so also had the Governor of Madras. The speaker guaranteed that in three years the fund would amount to Rs. 45,000. The sum to be contributed need only be sufficient to meet half the salary of the English lady's services, for Government would give the other half. Another means used by the Association for the accomplishment of its objects was the annual Needle-work Exhibition, which had now been held for the past three years with fair success. By this it was intended to cultivate a taste for artistic needle-work in the native homes. The Government had recognised these exhibitions, and promised to contribute largely towards the prizes given. In social matters, not quite so much had been done during the past year as during previous years. But there had been social gatherings, which were brought about

by the hospitality of some of the members. To do much in this direction it was thought that the Association should have a separate room. But this required extra funds, and for that purpose it was proposed by the speaker that the subscription be raised. It had been found difficult to organise lectures, for those gentlemen who could impart knowledge to others were working men. They should pay for the lecture in the shape of a small entrance fee, after the penny-reading system. In conclusion, the Chairman said it was incumbent on all members to unite and hold together as friends, and to stand firmly to their colours. If they fought among themselves they should be good friends after. They should all meet on a platform of kindly feeling and mutual reverence."

Mr. Justice Muttusawmy Aiyar, in moving the adoption of the Report, spoke of the satisfactory nature of the work done in the past year, and suggested that several sub-Associations might be formed at Mofussel stations, and affiliated to that at Madras. He considered that the future of the Association was rich with hope. The old tyrant, custom, was the enemy to be overcome in pushing on the Home Education. Education should first be fostered in such homes as were under the control of men of education and culture, and it would then spread satisfactorily.

Mr. Arundel seconded the resolution.

A Paper on Food was then read by Dr. W. E. Dhanakoti Raju, M.D., in which he pointed out the vital importance of the proper selection of food, and the grave consequences attendant on a defective diet.

Rajah Sir T. Madhava Row next addressed the Meeting. He spoke briefly on household economy. He said that it was a well-known scientific fact that when we applied heat to water there was a limit to the temperature that the water would acquire, viz., 212°. If this little fact were instilled into servants the economy that would follow would soon be seen, and we should thus be able to pay the tax on firewood by economising. If a pamphlet were written on this and translated and circulated, great good would be done.

Mr. S. Srinivasa Raghava Aiyangar then read a paper on the Duties of Educated Natives, from which we make the following extracts:—

The question, then, to be considered is, what are the characteristics of educated natives? Are they playing a worthy

part, or are they deserters to their posts? If not immediately, are they likely, as time goes on, to raise this country from the low level to which it has sunk? These are big questions, but they are questions which at one time or other must have occurred to the mind of every thoughtful native, and to which he must have attempted some kind of answer. It is generally acknowledged that in Government Service they have occupied positions of trust with credit and honour, and as lawyers they have distinguished themselves by general intelligence and probity. There has been a general elevation of the moral tone and the code of honour among the educated classes, and the influence is gradually spreading among those immediately in contact with them. The above-mentioned two walks of life are popular in all countries; and it must be specially so for a long time to come in a country like India, the political status of the people of which is low. In recent years, however, under the pressure, it may be, of necessity, educated natives have been knocking successfully at the door of other professions—for example, Engineering and Medicine—and Brahmins have so far emancipated themselves from prejudice as to have no objection to work in the dissecting-room. Educated men are also betaking themselves to trade, but as even the most cultivated minds cannot make bricks without straw, and India is a very poor country, the progress is necessarily slow in this direction. Doubtless by-and-by they will be employed in large numbers as clerks under traders and merchants, and will rise to be traders and merchants themselves. There is also much freer intercourse and mutual sympathy between persons of different castes than there used to be in the olden time. The caste system is undoubtedly answerable for many sins, but it has been too much the fashion to represent its influence as extending to public matters among educated men; and the reason for this is, I suppose, that old prejudices which once had a foundation in truth die very hard.—I fear I cannot say with truth that in the higher region of character, in the cultivation of virtues other than self-regarding, the advance made is equally visible. It may be that all this is latent, and will exhibit itself in course of time. The position, it must be remembered, of an educated man directing his attention to social reform, is truly one to be pitied. It does indeed need all the moral courage that a man can summon to overcome the dense mass of ignorance which he encounters, both at home and abroad, when he desires to walk somewhat out of the beaten track, however desirable it may be. If he is entirely regardless of the feelings of his father or mother in the carrying out of his views, he is called self-willed and unnatural. If he is slow to move, he is indifferent and apathetic. There are many earnest

men among educated natives who are in this position. There may be a middle course, but it requires great tact and discrimination to find it, and very skilful sailing to avoid the extremes. And it is not perhaps matter for surprise that the hearts of many fail them in the face of these difficulties, and that they purchase peace by suppressing their craving to live a higher life. As the time goes on, as educated society is enlarged, the strength of prejudice will doubtless become less and less. . . .

I do not say this of young men alone: I feel bound to say that even those who are as "shining lights unto their generation," and of whom any community might well be proud, and to whom the young men naturally look for guidance and support, have not exactly given the advice of the Spartan mother in the matter of social reform. They have in some cases advised young men to adopt the safe rather than the true; preached the practice of the self-regarding virtues, to the subordination of nobler impulses, as if the self-regarding virtues do not, as human nature is constituted, take sufficient care of themselves by reason of their being self-regarding, and as if the frown of the father, the lamentations of the mother, the tears of the wife, and the jeers of the neighbours, are not sufficient to keep the educated man in the accustomed groove. It seems to me that the virtue which we should learn is openness of mind, and a generous sympathy with the views of those in whose projects we are not permitted to take part; that we should assure them of our hearty sympathy, if not our active support, to cheer them in the midst of their trials and difficulties. The other day I read in a book a fearful description of a society, in which the best men have arrived at a state of moral stagnation. I will, with your permission, read the passage:—

"But epochs sometimes occur in the course of the existence of a nation at which the ancient customs of a people and its religious belief were disturbed, and the spell of tradition broken, while the diffusion of knowledge is still imperfect, and the civil rights of the community are ill-secured, and confined within very narrow limits. The country then assumes a dim and dubious shape in the eyes of the citizens: they no longer behold it in the soil which they inhabit, for the soil is to them a dull, inanimate clod; nor in the usages of their forefathers, which they have been taught to look upon as a debasing superstition; nor in religion, for of this they doubt; nor in the laws, which do not originate in their own authority. They entrench themselves within the dull precincts of a narrow egotism. They are emancipated from prejudice without having acknowledged the empire of reason; they are animated neither by instinctive patriotism, nor by thinking

patriotism, but they have stopped half-way between the two, in the midst of confusion and distress."

When I read this passage I was led to ask myself the question, Are we indeed coming to this? Further reflection has convinced me that this is not the case, and that there are hopeful signs in many directions; but there is still the danger, and it needs all our resolution to steer clear of it. I sincerely believe that the present feeling of indifference is a temporary phase which will soon pass away, and that a great future awaits India. There are many other questions connected with social reform to be discussed, and there are the questions of the religious and political future of India, all of which must for want of time be left unnoticed. I will now close this paper, in the words used by a great man who occupies in Europe almost the position of the President of the Republic of Science and Literature to one of the most go-ahead nations in the world: "Truly India has a great future before her; great in toil, in care and in responsibility; great in true glory, if she be guided in wisdom and righteousness; great in shame, if a second time she fail."

The Chairman thanked Dr. Dhanakoti Raju and Mr. Srinivasa Raghava Aiyangar for their lectures; and Mr. Gopala Row proposed a vote of thanks to the Chairman.

The following appeared in the *Madras Mail* of Sept. 9th:

NATIONAL INDIAN ASSOCIATION.—A very pleasant conversation was given last night at the office of the Director of Public Instruction, under the auspices of the Madras Branch of the National Indian Association. About seventy ladies and gentlemen were present, among the latter being many Mahomedan and Native members of the Association. Great praise is due to the President, Mr. H. B. Grigg; to the Vice-Presidents, Mrs. Grigg and Mr. Muttusawmy Aiyer; and to the indefatigable Honorary Secretaries, Messrs. Chentsal Rao and Mir Humayon Jah Bahadoor, for the excellence of the arrangements, and for the interesting programme. The proceedings opened shortly after nine o'clock with an overture by Kerabela on the piano-forte, by the Misses Kees, which was played with much vigour and precision. This was followed by a reading from *As You Like It*, in which Messrs. Hutchins, Grigg, Handley, Rowlandson, Geo. Duncan, and the Rev. S. Morley took part. The characters were all ably represented, Mr. Hutchins as "Jaques" being particularly good. The next item on the programme was a "Romance" by Goltermann, exquisitely played by Mr. Stradiot on the violoncello, and this was followed by an instrumental

quartette by Pleyel, in which Miss Kees played the violin, Mr. Garthwaite the viola, Mr. Stradiot the violoncello, and Miss F. Kees the pianoforte. The quartette was charmingly rendered, its only fault being that it was too short. The evening's entertainment wound up with a capital selection from Shakespeare's *Henry IV.*, in which Mr. Rowlandson represented the inimitable "Jack Falstaff."

SOCIAL AND PHILANTHROPIC INSTITUTIONS OF THE WEST.

XI.—GIRTON COLLEGE, CAMBRIDGE.

Higher instruction for women in England has latterly become so facilitated, and women students have distinguished themselves so remarkably in regard to attainments and to certain branches of professional work, that it is difficult to realise how short a time has elapsed since the idea of a College course for girls was ridiculed, and since it was unattainable even for the few who desired it. A useful beginning in regard to the improvement of girls' education was made about 35 years ago, when Queen's College, London, mainly through the influence of Rev. F. D. Maurice, was established, to be followed by Bedford College. But these institutions were in fact, and remained for some time, schools; of a high type, however—and as places of real culture they helped forward the after movement. Several years later, in 1865, the Local Examinations of the University of Cambridge (and subsequently those of Oxford), which were at first for boys only, were, at the urgent application of a few friends of thorough education, extended to girls.

The majority of girls' schools at this time were very unsatisfactory. As shown by the Report of the School Enquiry Committee in 1868, schools were often conducted by women who could do nothing else; the faculties of the pupils were not really trained; little attention was paid to hygiene or suitable recreations; the school apparatus was meagre, and an extravagant value was placed (generally by the parents' desire) on superficial acquisitions. By degrees, however, the efforts made, with the help of the Universities, to secure a sounder basis of teaching began to have effect. And now another want arose. Those pupils who had learnt to appreciate solid learning longed to be able to carry their studies farther. But this was not easy to accomplish at home. In most cases there was great difficulty, as well as expense, in obtaining teaching of a high character, especially in the country. Besides, the want of guidance, the

absence of a standard by which progress could be measured, and the frequent interruptions, made the continuance of study after leaving school a discouraging effort.

Such being the state of things, it occurred to Miss Emily Davies, in discussion with some others interested about educational progress, that it might be possible to form a College within reach of one of the Universities, in which the best teaching should be secured, with discipline suited to the age of the students. The scheme made way, and a preliminary prospectus was issued, which ends with the following paragraph regarding the object in view:—

“It will be seen that without aiming at a servile imitation of University life, the proposed College is designed to hold, in relation to girls’ schools and home teaching, a position analogous to that occupied by the Universities towards the public schools for boys. It is probable that a considerable proportion of the Students will, sooner or later, become teachers, either in the College itself, or in the higher class of schools. It is hoped that a double want will thus be supplied. The schools will be brought into close and friendly relations with a superior institution, to which they may look up for guidance and encouragement; while a body of cultivated women—whose fitness for the highest educational offices has been duly certified—will be gradually prepared for the work of teaching. The difficulty of discriminating between the fit and the unfit in appointing to such offices has long been felt, and it seems reasonable to expect that the application of suitable tests, by competent authority, will be as much valued by those who are interested in obtaining good teaching for their children, as it will certainly be welcomed by teachers themselves. To afford to English women an opportunity of obtaining in their own country, not only a thorough and complete education, but also a means by which it may be satisfactorily attested, may therefore be reckoned among the most important objects of the projected institution.”

In 1869 the College was started, but on a very small scale. A private house, standing in a good garden, was hired at Hitchin, half-way between London and Cambridge, and there six ladies began their studies under the instruction of lecturers from Cambridge, where already some interest was felt in the undertaking. In the following year it became necessary to increase the accommodation; so some iron rooms were arranged, making it possible to receive twelve students. But it was soon evident that the house at Hitchin could not longer meet the demand for entrance, and the Committee decided, on account of the many advantages of being close to Cambridge, to buy a site near that

University and to build a College. A field of sixteen acres was therefore purchased in the parish of Girton, about two miles from Cambridge, where a collegiate house was erected, containing rooms for twenty-one students, with a good dining-hall, and rooms for the Mistress, &c.

In 1872 the institution was incorporated under the name of Girton College, and in October, 1873, the new building was ready for occupation. The funds for the site and building were obtained through public subscriptions and by mortgage. Since then three extensions have been made to the original structure. The first addition was made in 1876; and the provision of rooms having again become inadequate, a further enlargement was made in 1879, by which time the number of students had risen to 56. Again lately rooms for 25 more students have been added, as well as new lecture-rooms and a library. The building is now important in size, with grounds laid out in shrubberies, tennis lawn, flower-beds, &c. It is of red brick, with three stories, of good architectural appearance. The students have the advantage of living in country air, while the distance from Cambridge is so short that they can easily go there for certain lectures and for laboratory work. Most of the teaching is, however, still given at the College, and without the same loss of time to the lecturers as when it was situated at Hitchin.

From the establishment of the College one of the objects of the Committee was to take such steps as from time to time should be thought most expedient and effectual to obtain for its students admission to the Examinations for Degrees of the University of Cambridge. The University regulations as to the terms of residence and the preliminary Examinations were from the first observed; but for several years it was only through favour that the Examiners reported on the students' work, no formal sanction to this having been given by the University. The results, however, showed that, notwithstanding the hindrances caused by insufficient preparation, the women candidates were well able to take their place in these Examinations, and public opinion by degrees began to support their natural wish that formal recognition should be given to their studies. The burden of proof as to the fitness of such a claim was thrown on those who disputed it, and it was found that there was little to be said in support of the actual procedure, which did not hinder women from passing a similar Examination to that of men, and yet deprived them of an acknowledged certificate. In 1880 the University of Cambridge appointed a Syndicate to consider some Memorials on the question of admission of women to the B.A. Degree, and a Report was presented in December of that year recommending

that women should on certain conditions be admitted to the Tripos Examinations. These Recommendations of the Syndicate were submitted to the Senate on February 24th, 1881, and were mainly agreed to by an overwhelming majority. The Ordinary B.A. Degree is still withheld from women at Cambridge, but most of the students would in any case work for a Tripos, and at any rate an important step has been taken by the Senate in thus throwing open the highest Examinations of the University, and giving women a public place on the class lists.

The number of students who had been in residence since the commencement of the College was, at the end of last term, 184. Of these, 80 have obtained Honours according to the Cambridge University standard (28 in Classics, 22 in Mathematics, 1 in Mathematics and in Moral Sciences, 1 in Mathematics and in History, 14 in Natural Sciences, 1 in Natural Sciences and in Moral Sciences, 7 in Moral Sciences, 5 in History and 1 in Theology); 25 have passed Examinations qualifying for the Ordinary B.A. degree; 51 have not completed their course. In addition, nearly 20 new students have been admitted in the present term. Many of the certificated students are now occupied as Head Mistresses of Girls' High Schools, Assistant Mistresses, and Visiting Teachers for special subjects, and several have been or are Resident Lecturers at Girton. Many, however, attend the College from a love of study for itself; some have since married.

The daily routine at the College, while adapted for steady work, is varied by much pleasant recreation. The morning is taken up with private study, the lectures are given in the afternoon, and later the students take walks, play lawn tennis, &c. After dinner, at six, private study is resumed for a time; but the evening is partly spent in sociability, and in holding the meetings of the various College Societies for Debates, Music, &c. Much individual freedom is allowed; but the Mistress, who has superintendence over all internal arrangements, exercises control in regard to the observance of certain rules, and as to accepting invitations. The time spent at the College is greatly enjoyed by the students, and they gain a useful experience of corporate life, as well as knowledge and culture.

The fees for a student are £100 a year, at which rate, the building having been provided, the College will be self-supporting. Many students, well qualified to profit by a thorough training, cannot afford the £300 required for the three years' University course. To enable such to enter the College, several Scholarships have from the first been granted. Some of the City Companies have shown liberality in this direction, as well as private individuals, and one of the Scholarships of the present year is given by former students, who have also by

other contributions shown their appreciation of the advantages which they have enjoyed at the College.

The influence of Girton College has extended far beyond the circle of its own students. It has affected numbers of girls' schools, by leading to a more solid course of teaching, and its success, with that of Newnham College, also at Cambridge, doubtless hastened the opening of the Degrees of the University of London to women, and the establishment of several new institutions for higher education.

A DIALOGUE BETWEEN TWO HINDU WIDOWS.

(Continued from page 475.)

B. Yes, I do admit that these evils have not ceased to exist, nor can they possibly cease till a death-blow is struck at the very cause that gives birth to all these evils. However, it is a fact that Lord W. Bentinck did rescue many young innocent widows from burning alive on the funeral pile of their deceased husbands. For our complete deliverance we have hope from our Viceroy.

A. Yes, I am not insensible to the great kindness shown by Lord W. Bentinck; but has not the remedy proved worse than the disease? He saved us from being burnt alive, but made us to die a slow and most painful death. We, in short, find ourselves "out of the frying-pan into the fire." What a pity that he did not do away with the entire evil!

A. But who will represent the case of the poor illiterate widows, living in a state of rigorous imprisonment, to His Excellency?

B. Do not excite yourself about it. By God's favour it is hoped that, sooner or later, justice will be done to us; for all just rulers consider it their first and foremost duty to protect the helpless and show mercy to those that deserve it most.

A. If so, dear sister, let us try to lay our grievances before our ruler. But who will listen and attend to us in the loud declamations of wise statesmen and the cries set up against us by politicians, with whom every feeling of compassion, mercy, and humanity is regarded as subservient to policy? Besides, whether we live or die, be enslaved, tortured, or burnt, the stony hearts of our male relatives are ever bent to drown our cries, though loud enough to reach the very skies, in their vehement protection of an arbitrary custom, equally opposed to their religious laws and ancient usages. Moreover, they can

make their voices more easily heard than we, who are completely shut out from the outer world, and have little or no chance to make ourselves heard from within the walls of our prison-house, where we have to undergo the severest pain for no fault of ours.

B. I am tired of assuring you over and over again that just rulers listen to the cries of the helpless and accord them full attention. Besides, the cause of justice will always triumph in spite of all opposition.

A. But tell me, what plan have you in view for representing our miseries to His Excellency?

B. I can only do so by means of a memorial to His Excellency.

A. But how is it possible? You do not know English, the language which His Excellency, being an Englishman, would understand best.

B. There will be no difficulty about it. Thousands of memorials have reached His Excellency in favour of continuing the use of the Hindi language. In the same way we hope ours might reach him as well.

A. Alas! alas! our people do not care for our sufferings even as much as for the Hindi language! We, who serve them with devotion day and night, study their pleasure, and put up meekly and patiently with all sorts of ill-treatment which we receive at their hands, have not even as much claim on their mercy as to lead us to hope that they may say a word for us. How sad, that our sorrow, which increases every moment, may not elicit the least sympathy from our people!

B. I have just told you that self-interest has almost blinded our people. Thus there is an imperative necessity to lay aside all fear of our male relatives, who do nothing for us, and seek deliverance ourselves at the hands of our rulers.

A. But, sister, what can one, or a dozen, or two dozens of memorials from us do in the face of strong opposition from our selfish priests and relatives? They will say that Government cannot interfere in social matters, although, under the cover of social matters, murder, slavery, infanticide, torture, and thousands such other crimes be daily perpetrated!

B. You need not fear this at all. I hope that moral courage and duty to humanity will stand the Government in good stead. In 1826 also, when Lord W. Bentinck put down suttee and infanticide, such vague fears were cherished; for, except one or two men, the whole of India was against the abolition of suttee and infanticide. The British Government in India was not, at the same time, so old, so organised, so appreciated, and so firmly established as it is now. Every individual in India then used

to bear arms. Yet no serious opposition was offered. All the fears were proved to be groundless, and all clamour passed quietly away. Raja Ram Mohun Roy was the only man who agitated this question, and once he personally spoke to Lord W. Bentinck, then Viceroy of India, about it; and although the Viceroys that preceded Lord W. Bentinck had not interfered with the suttee, infanticide, and slavery, yet he was too sensible not to see the justice of the cause, and felt morally responsible to put them down at a single stroke of his pen, without the least regard to the idle clamours raised by the Hindu priests and others. It is a matter of great regret that he, at the same time, passed no Act for widow-marriage (perhaps he did not think it advisable to attempt too much at once); else thousands of lives would have been saved from a perpetual misery during these fifty-eight years that have since elapsed. But even now, if the Government feels itself morally responsible for the well-being of those that are helpless and require protection most, it will succeed in removing the very cause whose existence has rendered the Acts passed by Lord W. Bentinck almost nugatory. And as thousands of people of India openly, and an equally great number secretly, are in favour of widow-marriage, so there is little or no fear of opposition from the people at all.

A. I, too, believe that there is great reason for hope that Government would remove every obstacle from the way of widow-marriage. But would anybody take the trouble of translating your memorial into English, and how will your memorial reach His Excellency the Viceroy?

B. I, after writing it out, would send it to the Editor of the *Arya Darpan Shahjehanpoor*, who will kindly put it in that Journal; and then some kind-hearted person, able to translate it into English, would accord us the favour of translating and sending it to His Excellency for His Excellency's kind consideration.

A. Kindly do write the memorial at once.

B. I am just going to compose it.

(The dialogue ends, and is followed by the memorial, which rehearses the above arguments.)

We have received Mr. B. M. Malabari's Notes on Infant Marriages and Enforced Widowhood in India, and many articles and letters on the subject, but we are obliged from want of space to postpone reference to them till next month.

MEDICAL WOMEN FOR INDIA.

The Maharani Surnomoyee of Cassim Bazar has made the munificent gift of a lakh and fifty thousand rupees towards the formation of a class in the Calcutta Medical College, with a separate staff, for the training of female practitioners and midwives.

Miss Ellaby, M.D., left England early in last month by the s.s. *Massilia*, to Bombay, in order to assist Miss Pechey, M.D., in her practice at the Dispensary for native women.

The scholarship of £50 a year for five years, in the award of the Medical Women for India Sub-Committee of the National Indian Association, has been given to Miss Florence Sorby, who has begun her course of study at the London School of Medicine for Women.

It appears that the medical practice of Mrs. Scharlieb, M.B., at Madras, is largely extending, and that many native ladies avail themselves of her advice.

Mr. Cummoo Sullimon, the generous founder of the Dispensary for Women and Children at Bombay, has addressed the Bombay Government through Mr. Sorabjee Bengalee, Honorary Secretary to the Medical Women for India Fund, expressing reluctance to go on with the scheme unless some permanent support should, if necessary, be promised to the Institution; the present arrangement being that the Municipality will contribute Rs. 500 monthly for three years only. The Government have issued a Resolution to the effect that in case the Municipality should not continue its support, the Government will be willing to defray the expenses. The same Resolution also deals with the question as to whether the Cama Obstetric Hospital should be lent for use as one of the courts of the Bombay International Exhibition of 1886-1887, before it is employed for its proper purpose. The matter appears to be still undecided.

INDIAN INTELLIGENCE.

H.E. the Governor of Bombay presided lately at the prize distribution of the Female Training College and the Primary Schools, in Poona. Mr. M. M. Kunte having addressed the meeting, Mrs. Ranade, on behalf of the native ladies present, expressed thanks to the Governor for his kindness in presiding, and for his constant interest in the cause of female education. Mrs. Ranade ended by referring especially to the liberal support which His Excellency had promised to extend to the new girls' school. Sir James Fergusson expressed his pleasure in the address of Mrs. Ranade, saying that it was truly remarkable that in that great assemblage a Hindu lady of high caste should have come forward with a noble courage to testify to her sense of the cause on behalf of which they had met. "It may be" (he continued) "that as yet the progress of female education has been small, though considerable as compared with its beginnings, but we have been the fountain-head from which the stream is flowing. It is as if we had irrigated but a few square miles of the thirsty Deccan. But the fountain is not dry, it is being fed and enriched, so that we may confidently hope that the next ten years will show results immensely greater than the last." Sir James then referred to the appointment of Miss Collett as Lady Superintendent of the School, "having transferred her valuable services from Ahmedabad, where she has left her mark, to this great centre and capital, and has in the past year done so much to grapple with the difficulties which beset her work." He acknowledged that there *are* many difficulties. He considered vernacular instruction very important, and deserving of as much encouragement as higher education. The recent earnestness shown in promoting higher education for native ladies is valuable in connection with the instruction of the masses, because until they are penetrated with the love of learning their powerful aid and encouragement will not be given to the elevation of their humble sisters. The Governor spoke of the generous support given to the new High School, but he hoped that the Municipality of Poona would not be less liberal in providing for the primary and vernacular education of women. "Again, it is chiefly to the leaders of native society that we must look for the removal of the practical difficulties which stand in the way of our obtaining suitable schoolmistresses. We know how greatly Hindu women shrink from a public position, and how distasteful it is to their relatives. Yet, unless ladies can be found who will be respected in such a position, we cannot hope that parents and

relatives will be willing to entrust their children to the village schoolmistress. The readiest expedient must be found in what has been stated to be the object of the Committee; namely, to induce the wives of schoolmasters to undertake the office of schoolmistresses, so that they may appear in a public position under the protection of their husbands. Even in England, where the same difficulties do not occur, the happiest results are found from the schoolmaster and schoolmistress being man and wife, partners in their profession as in life, and gaining strength and comfort in their natural co-operation." After urging upon native gentlemen the importance of trying to remove by their influence this hindrance to female education, Sir James remarked on the successful efforts made in various Native States in establishing schools for girls. He also pointed out the advantages of the Kindergarten method of teaching, as "encouraging healthy exercises along with mental development, so that learning is no longer distasteful and dry, but is made bright and cheerful." The following words closed the address: "Gentlemen, I have commended these things to you as earnestly as I can, in the hope that they will be remembered and pursued. I shall not be here to see their fruits; but I leave behind colleagues as earnest in the cause and well able to assist it. Be sure that no one will be sent in my place who is not aware and impressed with the weight of such responsibilities; for one would be false to the tradition of this Government, from Lord Elphinstone upwards and downwards, who did not desire to extend to the women of India as widely as to those of his own race the immeasurable blessings of education; and so shall I leave behind me with confidence a hope of the development of this great, important, and, I trust, successful undertaking."

Surgeon F. S. Chatterji, M.B., has invested a sum of Rs. 5,000 in 4 per cent. Government Securities for the foundation of a Scholarship to be awarded to the best student in the Calcutta Medical College of native Indian extraction, in the subject of practical and theoretical Histology.

Miss Chundermukhi Bose, M.A., has been appointed Assistant Lady Superintendent of Bethune Female School, Calcutta.

Mr. A. Borroah, Collector of Noakhali, is compiling a Dictionary of the Bengali language as spoken in different parts of the country.

We regret to hear of the death of Kumar Jevansing, younger brother of H.H. the Maharaja of Bhowanagar, who for a time studied at Cambridge, and whose interest in scientific studies showed promise of usefulness.

PERSONAL INTELLIGENCE.

Mr. B. S. Mankar, of Bombay, has passed the Primary Examination in Anatomy and Physiology of the Royal College of Surgeons of England.

Mr. Aurung Shah (Assam) and Mr. James Tarini Coomar Mitter have passed the First M.B. and C.M. Examination of the University of Glasgow, and Mr. Promath Nath Roy the Third M.B. and C.M. of that University.

Mr. K. P. Gupta, M.R.C.S. Edin., has been examined and approved for a certificate in Sanitary Science by the Examiners in State Medicine in the University of Cambridge.

Mr. George Nundy, B.A., LL.D., of H.H. the Nizam's service, has been appointed an Honorary Assistant Commissioner in Berar Commission.

Arrivals.—Sirdar Thakur Singh, a brother of Kumar Shiva Nath Singh, of Tajpore, cousin of the Maharaja Dhulip Singh, and his two sons, Sirdar Marender Singh and Girdi Singh; and Mr. A. C. Homji, of Bombay; the Hon. Syed Ameer Ali, on leave from Calcutta; Dr. Shams Uddin J. Sulaimani; Mr. Abur Raza, for Law; Mr. Manik Lal Dutt, the Gilchrist Scholar of this year.

Departures.—Surgeon H. E. Banatvala, Indian Medical Service, by H.M.S. *Junna*; Khan Bahadur Bomanjee Sorabjee, C.E. Also for Bombay, Dr. Simeons, of Goa, who during his tour of 18 months in Europe, besides obtaining the medical diplomas already mentioned in this *Journal*, and a Sanitary qualification, was made at Rome a Knight of the Order of the Sepulchre, and a member of the Scientific Society of the Arcades.

Marriage.—On the 21st inst., at the Chapel, Little Portland Street, London, W., Syed Ameer Ali, M.A., Barrister-at-law, Member of the Legislative Council of India, to Isabelle, second daughter of H. Kohnstamm, Esq., of Gloucester Place, Portman Square, W.

We acknowledge with thanks Cholera and its Preventive Treatment, by D. N. Rây, M.D., L.S.A. (London). New York (Chatterton).

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We have the satisfaction to announce that Lord and Lady Dufferin have become Vice-Patrons of the National Indian Association.

INFANT MARRIAGE AND WIDOW MARRIAGE
IN INDIA.

ABOUT four months ago a memorandum appeared in the *Times of India* upon two important social questions, intimately connected with Hindu life: Infant Marriage, and Enforced Widowhood in India. Mr. B. M. Malabari, editor of the *Indian Spectator*, in this manner gave publicity to his vehement conviction of the serious evils resulting from the rigid observance of the prevailing rules as to marriage, and he at the same time suggested certain practical methods of procedure by which he considered that the sway of prejudice and custom might be gradually lessened. The Notes of Mr. Malabari upon these two points were widely circulated, being reprinted in pamphlet form, and translated into Urdu, Marathi, Tamil, Sindhi, and other vernaculars. Anglo-Indian newspapers entered upon the discussion; native journals took it up with warmth, opening their columns to an earnest and large correspondence upon the subject. The general drift of the debate showed that the present arrangements as to child marriages were allowed to be far from satisfactory; but in regard to proposed changes, and much more in regard to changes as to the position of widows, there was great difference of view. Numerous remedies were put forward, of course of various degrees of soundness and practicability. It cannot but have been of real advantage to elicit opinions from men of

weight and experience, and to expose such opinions to the modifying force of public criticism. With others who feel that reforms are needed, we are glad that Mr. Malabari has succeeded in bringing the questions of child marriage and widow marriage prominently into consideration. And this appears indeed to have been his chief desire and aim, rather than to try to secure adhesion for his own tentative schemes.

The main arguments stated in the Notes which have awakened such a widespread interest are not and could not be new, for this is by no means the first time that the subject has been openly discussed; but they gain force by being laid down as a basis for some decided kind of action. In respect to Infant Marriage, Mr. Malabari pictures the bad consequences, already frequently referred to: ill-health, the birth of sickly children, inexperience as to their care and education, obstacles to study on the part of the young husband, and the dependence and indebtedness which so often ensue. While he allows that in a number of cases such marriages may be happy, he points out the risk of a contrary issue when the parents have so much inducement to select bride or bridegroom from selfish motives, without reference to the higher matter of mutual suitability. Over-population and poverty on a large scale are shown to follow from the universality among certain castes of this custom, and its frequency in other castes; and one of the strongest reasons for discouraging it lies in the addition it makes to the otherwise large class of widows in India. In regard, again, to Widows, whose position is the subject of the second Note, Mr. Malabari represents their life in many parts of India as one of continual hardship and contempt, and often of moral wrong-doing; so that the abolition of the practice of Suttee did not bring unmixed benefit to those whose lot it was intended to alleviate. The chief matter for lamentation is, that very young girls, mere children, whose husbands die between betrothal and marriage, are at once classed among widows, and condemned to live a joyless, saddened life.—The prevalence of these customs is traced by Mr. Malabari to the dominant power of caste, which, taking cognizance of every social act among Hindus, and bringing religious and sacerdotal force to bear upon family concerns, hinders the exercise of individual judgment, and meets opposition with excommunicating persecution. In the face of this gigantic social power, he considers that the

Western-educated class can do but little. They have so much separated themselves from the views of the mass of the people that their influence does not reach the difficulties of the case; and, moreover, their want of organisation prevents united effort. Under these circumstances, Mr. Malabari suggested, but without intending to be dogmatic, that the Government might take action in certain directions, so as to minimise the present evils. He felt that the immovable weight of caste would not yield except to stringent measures of some kind or other. But his greatest hope lay, as he indicated, in a movement begun by the Hindus themselves; and he urged that a large Association might be formed, to operate upon public opinion, and, by all varieties of methods, to quicken this reform which has to a small extent already advanced.

In the discussion which followed the publication of Mr. Malabari's Notes, much criticism was brought to bear upon the assertions and recommendations which they contained. Some said that, being a Parsee, he could not have had full opportunity of forming correct opinions upon the subject with which he had ventured to deal. The prevalence of the evils denounced was stated to be less than he represented. It was urged that child marriages were becoming less frequent, that widow marriages would never be popular, and that the Notes were marked by a tone of exaggeration and inaccuracy. On the other hand, many leading Hindu gentlemen who took part in the contention fully endorsed the views of the writer, and showed that they were deeply sensible of the existing evils, and anxious to discover the right remedies. As to what would be the right remedies, however, there was again great difference of opinion. The general impression seemed to be that Government could not consistently interfere in the matter; a few, however, desired that such influence should be exerted. It was suggested by one influential Hindu that steps might at least be taken by Government to ascertain the feeling of the people in respect to the possible adoption of legal measures; and the passing of a law to hinder marriage for girls up to the age of 11 or 12 was, in some quarters, mentioned as not unlikely to be useful. But the majority of those who argued the subject were inclined to rely on a gradual change in public opinion, which, they consider, is not yet prepared for abolition by law of customs so long observed. Mr. Malabari communicated personally with several high Govern-

ment officials. These gentlemen recognised the evils referred to as very serious, and wished that something could be done to remove them; but while offering co-operation with the representatives of the people who might take up the question, they stated that they did not see their way to promoting initiatory legislative action in the present phase of the question.

Within the last few weeks Mr. Malabari has again issued two Notes upon Infant Marriage and Enforced Widowhood. In regard to the first custom, he submits for consideration these points: that his statements and his suggestions have been very generally accepted; that it has been shown that Infant Marriage contributes very largely to Compulsory Widowhood; that religion and caste do not insist upon marriage for a girl so early as is the practice; that men, according to the Hindu Shastras, are required to have gone through a prolonged course of study and discipline before marriage, so that for them early marriage is by no means sanctioned by the Hindu religion; that, notwithstanding these rules, child marriages are very general in India, being usual in some castes for 60 or 80 per cent. of girls. Mr. Malabari then urges again that while "the educated classes and all sensible Hindus" deplore the results of the custom, they cannot act with sufficient force and decision without State co-operation, and he suggests that the Government should adopt practical means for discouraging child marriages, and for encouraging reforms. The *discouragement* might, he thinks, be carried out through the Universities and the Public Departments, by making married students ineligible for Matriculation, Scholarships, and the Public Service. The *encouragement* suggested is in the direction of inducements to girls to remain longer at school, by scholarships, prizes, &c. With regard to the second subject, Enforced Widowhood, Mr. Malabari evidently feels the extreme difficulty of interference. He has revised his former impracticable, and it appears to us undesirable, suggestions; but he thinks that Government might allow a widow a share in her husband's property, and that the expense of the marriage ceremony for widows might be lessened; also, that Government should make grants to the Widow Marriage Fund, and give special facilities to widows to qualify themselves for teaching, medical work, and other suitable occupations. In conclusion, Mr. Malabari appeals to the social leaders to carry out their convictions

with ardour, and he repeats his hope that an Association will before long be founded in order to educate the public mind upon these important questions.

It is extremely difficult for English people in England, and even in India, to comprehend the intricacies of this, at first sight, simple subject. Caste procedure, and the endless varieties of that procedure in different parts of India and among different sects, and the complications that arise through the force of tradition, prejudice, hereditary conservatism, and race constitution, all tend to envelope the whole matter in mystery, and to make one give up in despair any expectation of really understanding either what is or what might be. Two or three clear points seem, however, now to stand out, which those who try to promote the adoption of well-considered reforms will be glad to keep in view. I. That Infant Marriage has not the sanction of the Hindu religious law. This has been brought out definitely in the discussions, and it should be kept prominently before the public mind. It is true that the custom of marrying children early has become so widespread and so rigid that it will be no easy thing to uproot it. But still it rests upon fashion, and not upon the *Shastras*. In all countries the force of fashion is enormous, yet it can not in the end stand before the persistent opposition of sound sense and education. II. That Infant Marriage, so hurtful in itself, is the chief source of the widowhood difficulty. The child widows are those that specially need consideration and help, and there would be none such if no betrothals took place in infancy. All effort, therefore, directed against child marriage simplifies the other question also. III. That there is a recognised party who do not consider that widow marriage is condemned by Hindu law and tradition. This matter is keenly disputed; but the more liberal view seems to be gaining ground, as is evidenced by the many local Associations which have existed for several years, and which appear now to be advancing in public favour, in encouragement of the re-marriage of widows. Generally speaking, the grown-up widow will still acquiesce in her lot, and will have no desire to change it; but it seems well that, considering the hard position which in some parts of India the widow occupies, she should not be forbidden to marry again if she chooses.—The above three points form a strong basis of action for those who realise the many evils that result from the present state of things.

among whom all friends to the progress of education in India should range themselves. With regard to what Government and Government officers can or cannot do, we agree with the views expressed in the following extract from an article which appeared in the *Times of India*, in criticism of Mr. Malabari's proposals, which was, we understand, written by an Englishman high in the judicial service :

"Prohibitive legislation in advance of native public opinion is not to be thought of. But much can be done by officials and the more enlightened natives, in guiding the popular mind to a decision without any legislative interference. Unofficial encouragement has materially advanced more than one great question in India. We have heard, for instance, of Collectors expounding the advantages of education to their native staff in a way that has completely filled an empty school. Without direct interference, much is done by the mere fact that the authorities give their approval. As regards infant marriages, we understand that pretty well the whole official world, from the Viceroy downwards, is in favour of their suppression by any proper means short of direct legislation. At the same time nothing can be done without the active co-operation of leading Hindus and a strong native organisation. It is purely a social reform, and the movement must come from the society which is to be reformed. Any mere outside movement would be factitious and could produce no real reform "

We close this short account of the discussion by congratulating Mr. Malabari on having done so much to rouse and to influence public opinion in regard to the reforms which he advocates with such earnestness and zeal; and we hope on future occasions to have much to record as to the advance of a movement which has our sincere sympathy and good wishes.

WOMAN'S INFLUENCE AT HOME.

I shall try to notice in this sketch how far a woman's influence extends, and how much actual good she is capable of doing, so as to encourage my educated countrymen to give to their wives and daughters a liberal education, in order to bring out their best qualities, develop their minds, and fit

them for the important duties of wife and mother. If only the enlightened sons of India knew how much they lose in not having intellectual, cultivated wives and mothers, they would not be so slow in their attempts to do something for the women of our country, who, alas! are still sunk in ignorance and superstition.

All will agree in saying that it is at home, in the performance of her quiet duties, that woman appears at her best. Hers is the sweeter lot to love, soothe, comfort, share the joys, lighten the sorrows, and, by many loved deeds best known to herself, make happy the home of man. Sweet-tempered, modest, gentle, and affectionate, she is the greatest boon conferred by heaven on man. She smooths all the roughness in his nature, calms and cheers him. But she can do something more; she can be a real companion to him in his every-day life, if only she is intellectually trained. Her companionship in work—nay, even her very presence and interest in it—would lighten the most arduous task, and make the most trying duty seem a pleasure; and the free interchange of ideas with her will enable man to discover yet newer phases of thought, and give a wider scope to his knowledge. Every person with whom we come in contact at one time or other influences us either for good or evil; there is a constant mutual acting and reacting, and the stronger is this felt when the intercourse is closer. If the wife is bigoted, ignorant, and narrow-minded, with low desires, low thoughts, she is apt to draw down her husband, however intellectual and liberal-minded he may be, if not to her own level, at all events to a position anything but befitting his training and culture. On the other hand, a generous-minded, noble woman, with intellectual tastes and sensibilities, will support all that is noble and good in her husband, encourage his higher thoughts and aspirations, and be a real help to him in his every-day life. As it is, there is very little opportunity for an intellectual, cultivated man of the present day to put into practice his civilised notions, and carry out reforms in his own house. Single-handed, without the woman on his side, he is quite helpless. Religion and superstition bind him hand and foot. And this is the weapon the womankind wield against him, frustrating every attempt of his; and if he were to act against them, show his disbelief in his religion, or neglect the time-honoured superstitions and ceremonies,

why, the whole house will turn against him! He will be called a Christian, an outcast, a pariah, and the next step will be, the priest, getting the information, will not only excommunicate him, but all the unfortunate females of the family, who are themselves so averse to the new modes of thought and action! And excommunication means misery; relations and friends will shun him and his family, servants leave the house; and the poor women—no outdoor worshippings and ceremonies for them, no festivals, which are little breaks, little intervals of freedom and diversion in the continued monotony of their lives; no invitations, no visits, no showing their best garments and jewels, no friends, no gossipings—it is death to them. They will cry all day, turn upon the man with their bitterest words, and make his lot as hard as possible. The English in India seldom know or see the home life of an intelligent Hindu. They do not know how much of religion and superstition enters into it. Ceremonies—some childish, ridiculous, others meaningless to most—have to be observed almost every day of their lives, and there is not a domestic act or duty that does not involve some ritual or rite. But the power of the woman does not end here. The grandmother or eldest aunt generally, being the oldest member of the family—the most experienced, the most venerable—has the greatest sway on the family, tyrannizing over all the younger members of the house, enforcing her own opinions, her judgments and thoughts; and however the men may differ, and know them to be ridiculous and mere childish laws, they have to give in to them, and keep up a show of approval, in order to preserve peace in the family. Hence it is that bigotry and superstition still lie nestled in our households, and have a powerful hold on our minds.

The wife, who ought to enter into the feelings of her husband, and co-operate with him in every good work, keeps aloof from him, either afraid to show her interest or sympathy in his pursuits, or wanting in both. Everything is done by the ruling dame of the household to alienate them from the very first, so that there may not be the least spark of love or sympathy between them. She is called names before him, her ordinary conduct is pictured in the worst colours to the husband, so that he is even so enraged as to strike her! She is always described as conspiring and acting against the mother-in-law or some other ruling dame of her husband's

house, and the common epithets applied to her are, 'obstinate, self-willed, headstrong, senseless.' Do what she will, she can never propitiate this great personage. Then the foolish etiquette of society, too, forbids them to talk to each other. She has to stand and cover up her head as soon as her husband enters the room, who is expected to pass her unnoticed. She cannot even when asked utter his name, which, of course, she is very glad not to do; for there is generally too much fear associated with it. There are numbers of such foolish observances, which, however, we will pass over. It is enough for our purpose to say that a woman in the Hindu house is not what is often considered, a mere nonentity. Her power for good or evil we see is great, and is felt by all.

In the excellent work of Mr. Adams Davenport, on *Woman's Work and Worth*, we find a true description of what a wife ought to be, and what she is in the civilized West. How far does the Hindu wife fall short of this ideal! Here is the description:

"Man," says our author, "is incomplete without her. His life loses its object, and his intellect its aim and inspiration. It is the wife who consoles the wounded spirit, who infuses fresh vitality into waning hope, who strengthens the decaying energy, who restores the jaded mind to a healthy vigour. When all others prove false, when friends and neighbours pass on the further side, she remains constant, true, and loyal; and so long as we preserve her trust, no burden of adversity can utterly overwhelm us. We put our hand in hers, and she guides our tottering steps; through the gloom of fortune her loving eyes shine star-like; the crushed heart gathers itself up again in her smile, like a wind-torn flower, in the sunshine. There is no happiness so pure or so strong, so little affected by external circumstances, as the happiness which flows from the affection of a true wife."

As a mother she has the greatest influence; for is not a child taught from its infancy to honour and obey its parents? And the obedience to parents, in a Hindu home, is the means of bringing the child entirely under the influence of the father and mother, and more especially of the latter. It is, for instance, the parents of the son who choose his little bride for him, give him his education, maintain him and her until they are able to support themselves. But even then they cannot quit their parental home unless, perhaps, they are obliged to

leave their native place. Thus the parental influence never ceases, but is kept on through life. Sometimes we see the son not agreeing with his parents; the education which he receives, his thoughts and his ideas, do not well harmonize with the antiquated notions of the older members of the family. Sometimes the women do not agree; the young wife rebels against the tyranny of the ruling grandame, her mother-in-law. But these are rare instances; generally the spirit of the girl-wife is completely broken down. When quite a child she comes to her husband's home, and there what has she not to bear? Her husband being a mere boy of about ten or twelve, she is virtually supported by his parents, and every pittance doled out to her is grudged and proclaimed by the sharp old dame. This is not all; the butt of the family, she has to bear scoldings and abuses from all quarters, and thus her life is made as unhappy as possible. Such a treatment has the effect of crushing out all that is best and purest in the girl's nature; she grows jealous, discontented, learns to hate; the daily routine of work becomes unbearable, her faculties are dwarfed, every generous impulse is stifled, and she pines for her mother's home. Well, some may think I have overdrawn the picture; but this is not the case. I can bring forward numbers of such instances; just now one comes distinctly before me: When visiting a zenana one day, I remember being struck very much with the words of the daughter-in-law of the house, a girl of much character and independence of spirit. "We are slaves! we are bond-children, that is what we are!" she exclaimed. "Why do you want to teach us? We have no brains; we cannot learn. It is the men that want knowledge, not we." With these sad, bitter words, she closed her mouth, and kept her reserve ever afterwards.

The days of infancy and childhood are the most important. Impressions made at that time are not at all easily effaced. Therefore the responsibilities of a mother are very great. She needs great discretion, tact, and common-sense in bringing up a child; for a good deal of evil and good can be traced to maternal influence. A little want of firmness in the mother, for instance, how much evil does it bring on! How many lives have been failures owing to the injudicious indulgences and the capricious affections of foolish mothers! It is well said that "the greatness of great men is due to their mothers."

Many instances can be brought forward, but one or two will suffice here. We are familiar with the name of Washington. His father died early; but it was the mother who took the education of her son into her hand, and communicated those high qualities which have made him a hero. The mother of Goethe, the celebrated German philosopher, had also remarkable influence on her son. A gentleman who had made her acquaintance said, "Now do I understand how Goethe has become the man he is." Cromwell's mother was another such example. It was at her knee that he early learnt his lessons of piety, and it was her "patience, persistency, and simplicity of character that he inherited."

"The mother in her office, holds the key
Of the soul, and she it is who stamps the coin
Of character."

Seeing that such is the mother's influence on her children, ought not we to say, with Eugène Pelletan, that "she has a right to the highest education that can be given her—the education of heart, mind, and body; the wide and judicious culture of all her faculties, moral, intellectual, physical"?

AN INDIAN LADY.

THE MOST NEEDED REFORM IN INDIA.

In India there has recently been a great agitation about putting down infant marriage and forced widowhood. The discussion of these subjects, started by the Editor of the *Indian Spectator*, has elicited very interesting expressions of opinion from the educated Indians as well as English statesmen. The object of this agitation, so far as I can understand, is to invoke the aid of the Government in uprooting the evil customs above-mentioned. With equal ingenuity, and with a remarkable logical sleight-of-hand, attempts have been made to impose this singular duty upon the Government by resolving the question of infant marriage into a question of economic reform, and by showing that widows are the adopted daughters of the State, and as such require its protection. This is the general drift of the discussions which have been recently going on in India; and I think it will be labour well bestowed to find out the ultimate bearings of these discussions upon the welfare of India. While writing to this *Journal* a few thoughts suggested to me

by the recent discussions, my object is not to pitch voice against voice, which will be of little good, but to discuss as briefly as possible, from a general point of view, the question of State interference in matters of social reform. I will not discuss the duty of the Government as to putting down infant marriage in India, in order to check over-population, and want and poverty, which follow in its train; or as to taking up the widow's cause, looking on her as the adopted child of the State. These points are foreign to my present purpose. What I want to say in a few words is to show the evil consequences to which State interference of any kind whatever in social matters is sure to lead.

Now, what are the objections to which State interference in social matters is open?

Let it be borne in mind that these customs were not called into existence by one man, and handed down to all succeeding generations. These customs have not been made, but they have grown out of the moral and intellectual life of the people themselves. Human society itself is, in the very best sense of the word, not a manufacture but a growth. A glance at the history of the growth of commerce and language will illustrate the truth of this remark. But if it is so; if we cannot manufacture social customs; if social customs will of themselves undergo necessary modifications caused by our moral and intellectual advancement, then why invoke State interference? Is it not an outrage against common-sense, against the truths of history, to believe that the Government would do what Nature has failed to do? that though our customs have grown in course of ages, yet the Government with one magical stroke can destroy them? nay more, that it can of a sudden make us capable of better customs? This belief, this delusion, this peculiar perversion of the Indian intellect, exists, because only one side of the real fact is taken into account. 'The other side—the more important one—is slurred over and kept out of sight. What the custom is, many know; but why it is so and so, few care to know. Carlyle has said somewhere that "it is the inward and the spiritual which determines the outward and the material" in man. There is much truth in this remark. Every custom, every institution, is the counterpart of some inward feelings in man—corresponds to some inward desires and inclinations. Man cannot alter it, without altering the circumstances; cannot remove it, without removing the variety of causes which have called it into existence.' Space does not permit me to give any illustration of this truth at full length; but I may remark, in passing, that in India, where, unlike as in the past, men have become aggressive, impulsive, and violent, addicted to bursts of

passion, and not enough sobered down with any ethical restraints—where women and children are only the slaves of men—the principles of despotism are practised in domestic life as well as in politics. The argument of those who say that the enormity of the misery caused by forced widowhood is much greater than that caused by the *Suttee*, and who in the same breath say that, like the *Suttee*, forced widowhood should also be put down by the Government, is an elaborate contradiction. When they say that forced widowhood has produced a far greater amount of misery in Indian society than *Sutteeism* ever did, they tacitly assume—though they do not openly confess—that the Government has signally failed in diminishing the amount of our miseries; nay, what is worse, it has thrown us out of the frying-pan into the fire! It has taught us a lesson which it will be ill for us to forget; and it is this, that there is a real correspondence between our inward feelings and desires, and our social customs and institutions; and by changing these customs alone our feelings cannot be changed.

Now, bearing in mind the truth that social institutions are what the character of men permits them to be, we ought also to remember that the feelings and desires of which our customs are only exponents are of long duration, and, as such, wrought into our very organism and constitution. A mere stroke of the Legislature cannot destroy them. If the theory of heredity be true; if it be true that mental and moral likenesses, no less than physical likenesses, are transmitted from parents to offspring; if it be true that national character, which is the sum of the individual characters of the units of a nation, is handed down from generation to generation; if, taking extreme cases, it be true that a Cetyvayo cannot come from Belgravia, nor a Spencer or a Michael Angelo from the savage tribes of Central Africa; then to suppose that simply by the touch of the legislative magic wand the status of women will be suddenly raised in Indian society, where female degradation and female ignorance have existed since so long a time as to have now acquired religious sanction; where men are born despots, and women born slaves—is really an absurd supposition—a supposition which sets at defiance every truth which science and common experience of men alike teach. But when the contrary of the above-mentioned facts shall be proved, then it will be time for our reformers to invoke the aid of the Government in reforming the abuses of Indian society, and giving Indian women the same privileges which their English sisters enjoy. Besides, let us see what are the antecedents of an Indian society of which present evils are the necessary consequences. By no means happy and glorious are those traditions. Its weakness and anarchical state invited the

Greeks and Mohammedans to plunder its wealth. It has never developed commercial institutions, and, consequently, never known the faculty of organisation and the spirit of co-operation which such institutions always tend to produce. It is a society which, having no consciousness of any profit or injury arising from within, from the workings of its own members, has always had an ample experience of the good and ill coming from external sources, chiefly the Government. Owing to priest domination, religious differences, and class distinctions, it has lost the consciousness of nationality or unity; this society, for aught we know, has always believed in "the Divinity that doth hedge a king," and never known social liberty, in the modern sense of the term. How, in a society which has these *glorious* antecedents, any sudden reform of men and women, any sudden change of habits and customs, can take place, I fail to see.

Again; if, leaving this point, we turn to history, we find that the one great truth which the study of history teaches us beyond the shadow of a doubt is, that the course of civilization has been marked all along with the gradual decrease of State power, and the gradual increase of the power of the people. I refrain here from dwelling upon this point at any length, bearing in mind that discussions upon social matters alone can be carried on in this *Journal*. But, however, when, bearing in mind the above-mentioned remark, I turn to the present agitation about social reform in India, I cannot follow the operations of the minds of those who, striving on the one hand for local self-government, invoke on the other hand the aid of the Government in social reform.

Educated Indians are, let it be said to their credit, beginning to see now the necessity and the usefulness of enlarging the sphere of individual liberty, and of checking any encroachments of the Government upon their social privileges, to which the time-honoured traditions of our society, and the hold they still have upon the deepest beliefs and convictions of our countrymen, lend a sacredness which ought to be treated with reverence rather than with contempt. But how strange that along with the cry of "Self-government" there goes forth the cry of "Social reform by Governmental interference!"

There is a strange—I was going to say a foolish—inconsistency in all this. To my mind all this seems sheer nonsense. If it is really the conviction of many educated Indians that the Government should interfere with our social matters, I am sorry; I am extremely sorry, because it exposes us to every charge which can be brought against us as a nation. It shows that we are not fit for self-government, or for any political privilege whatever, when we cannot take care of our own homes.

It also betrays a lamentable want of moral strength in us, that we, fearing the odium of society by shocking its prejudices, impose the work of reform upon the Government. It also shows how mistaken we are in our notions of human society; how great is our ignorance of the causes and the laws of progress, physical and moral; and how blind we are to the fact that the hope of India, considering the present circumstances, lies not in widening but in narrowing the sphere of the Government. Social reform is a serious affair. It is a sacred and solemn task for every man. The reform of infant marriage, forced widowhood, &c., is no doubt a solemn work; but then there is another work, too, as solemn as this. And here I come to the subject which heads this article. What is "the most needed reform in India"? Some will say, infant marriage, forced widowhood, &c. But I say, that neither the infant marriage nor the forced widowhood, but the reform of the reformers, is the most needed reform in India. In India, at present, to reform those who want to reform others is the one thing needful. I am quite aware that to some these remarks will appear very impertinent. But impertinent though they may seem, yet a glance at the qualifications of our so-called reformers will justify them. Before one be put in charge of the steam-engine it is necessary for him to know something about steam; to know what are the functions of wheels, screw, &c. Now let us see how far our social reformer has the necessary knowledge of the social machinery. In India, on account of some unfortunate causes, there are many hindrances in the way of thorough training, and the opportunities of intellectual improvement are few and far between. Language, learning, a few mathematical formulas learnt by rote, the swallowing down of a few isolated facts of history in order to be reproduced before the examiner, form what is called a "gentleman's education." They are looked upon as accomplishments, and excite respect and admiration at every turn. A fluent tongue and a fluent pen are more prized than an inventive head which in its quiet corner reflects upon the problems of mechanics. It is the ambition of every man to make his son a graduate of some university, but to send him as an apprentice to the merchant's shop is looked upon as a social as well as a moral disgrace. A little knowledge of law and a little experience of court business gives one an undisputed claim to thorough education; while one who has acquired a mastery over a certain branch of science by devoting his life and energy to it is pitied, if not actually despised, and is looked upon as one who smells fustily of books without having any practical knowledge of the ways of the world. Such is the *high* standard of education in India! How an education like this disciplines one for the

extremely difficult task of social reform I am not able to comprehend.

Social reform requires a systematic study of the laws which govern human society. It requires a careful sifting of all the various elements which enter into the composition of our beliefs and social customs. Unless this is done, let social reform stand untouched.

But our so-called educated Indians think otherwise. They think that, though to build a house requires a knowledge of masonry, the building up of the social fabric requires no such thing. Thus, ignorant as they are of the laws that regulate human actions, and incapable as they are, from the very nature of the imperfect and hap-hazard education that they receive, of discerning the continuous rhythm of cause and effect beneath the apparent confusion of human volitions, and of perceiving the order of Law beneath the chaos of caprice, it is no wonder if they think that, our customs being the result of human caprice, one stroke of the Legislature would annihilate them. But to those nature-menders, those practical atheists, who think that Government ought to do what God in His wisdom has not thought good to do, Humanity says, in the words of Hamlet, "Do you think I am easier to be played upon than a pipe?" The voice is full of ominous warning, and will, I hope, be left unheeded no longer. I said the reform most needed in India was the reform of the reformers, and still repeat the same thing. That they may reform others, they should first reform themselves. Reform, like charity, must begin at home.

There are two things which our reformer ought always to bear in mind. In the first place, he ought to remember that this universe is governed by eternal and invariable laws. He ought to learn that the orderly development of human society is one of the grandest expressions of that Law; that institutions are not made, but grow; and that, as in physics so in social reform, there is no philosopher's stone by which we can get golden conduct out of leaden instincts. The second thing he must bear in mind is that, as in politics so in social reform, the main thing required is, not fear, but hope; not timid wavering, but staunch resolution; not to stifle opinions, but to express them; and—what is over all and above all—not words, but action.

Let any man who wants to reform the vices of his society first try to rid himself of those vices, and make himself a living example of virtue and purity—"a visible rhetoric" to those around him. This process may be slow, but it is sure. Let him bear in mind that social changes are the result of various forces, and his thoughts and actions and opinions—in short, his life—

is one of those forces through which works the Divine law.
For—

“Nature is made better by no mean,
But nature makes that mean : over that art
Which you say adds to nature, is an art
That nature makes.”

With this belief, let our reformer try to carry on his peaceful mission ; and if he succeed in his work, well ; if not, well also, though not so well.

P. BISHAN NARAYAN DAR.

London.

To the Editor of the Journal of the National Indian Association.

Not being in India myself, I am not in a very good position to take part in the discussion which Mr. B. M. Malabari, of Bombay, has started in connection with the custom of infant marriages and enforced widowhood which prevails in India. The two subjects may be or not connected with one another ; but Mr. Malabari having put them in close juxtaposition, I would say a few words on the two taken together.

I agree with Mr. Malabari in thinking that, among others, the practice of infant marriages and enforced widowhood have a great deal to do with the social unhappiness of Native India. Infant marriages, though most common among Hindoos of all classes, are not less so among the other Native communities of India. Whether by the influence of the more numerous Hindoos or by their own instinct, the Mahometans and the Parsis are alike suffering from this evil, though they are fortunately more or less free from the custom of enforced widowhood. Amongst Hindoos widowhood is *enforced* by society. It is a *social* tyranny ; that is to say, tyranny more tyrannous and far-reaching than that of Government. It has come to be thought so now, under a slightly altered state of society ; it was not felt to be so at one time, and for a considerable length of time. It was, no doubt, the means adopted at one stage of society with best possible motives for its own good ; but society is fast outgrowing that stage, and what was a probable good has become a positive evil.

So far I am with Mr. Malabari ; but I cannot persuade myself to think that he has suggested the right cure for the abolition of these practices. Mr. Malabari would, under certain conditions, invoke legislative interference, instancing the successful suppression of *Suttee*. I cannot compare these

practices with the practice of *Suttee*; I must confess, even at the risk of my opinion being set down antiquated, that I regret that even in the case of *Suttee* Government was ever allowed to interfere. Although I cheerfully acquiesce in what has turned out to be a source of good to the people, there is nothing that I object to more, in such a country as India is at the present day, than legislative interference in social usages. In England the acts of the legislature are acts, in a certain sense, of the society itself; they are not so in India; there they are, at the best, mandates of a well-meaning Government. I object to the principle. I think the remedy is to be found in enlightened public opinion. Mr. Malabari and those who think with him need, I think, to exercise an amount of patience. With increasing education all these evils are doomed to perish. I know of instances in which people have been *suo motu* trying to minimise them. People may be found who let their sons grow to the age of twenty or twenty-two before they are married. They are slowly raising also the limit of age at which girls are hitherto married. This spontaneous action I consider to be a healthy indication that enlightened views and rational beliefs are gaining ground. If the progress is slow, it is also sure. What cannot education do in twenty years more? And education will do what no Governmental interference will be able to do.

V. M. SAMARTH.

Oxford.

REVIEWS.

COLEBROOKE'S LIFE OF THE HONOURABLE MOUNTSTUART. ELPHINSTONE.*

(Continued from page 521.)

Elphinstone left Calcutta at the end of 1807, passing by sea to Masulipatam, and thence by dawk to Hyderabad. Colonel Doveton, who held a command at Hyderabad, was in camp at Karunja, and Elphinstone and his party spent some days with him, and were soon after met by Jenkins and other friends from Nagpoor, in company with whom they proceeded *vid* Omrauty to Ellichpoor, where they were magnificently entertained for some days by Nabob Salaubut

* *Life of the Honourable Mountstuart Elphinstone.* By Sir T. E. Colebrooke, Bart., M.P. In two vols., with portraits and map. London: John Murray. 1884.

Jung, the Nizam's Governor, and had an opportunity of seeing much that was new to Elphinstone in the habits, manners, and conversation of natives of rank. On the very day that they reached Omrauty a body of 4,000 or 5,000 Pindarrees swept a great part of the road which they had just travelled, and carried off one of Elphinstone's tents, three of his camels, and several of his servants. "They enquired where I was; some threatened me, while others said they were willing to serve us if we would be prevailed on to entertain them." In this incursion they burnt some houses within a mile and a half of the Nagpoor Residency. In fact, they were so near when Elphinstone was marching in from Ellichpoor that they were obliged to march the last thirty odd miles into Nagpoor without stopping to pitch their tents. Jenkins did not leave Nagpoor on being relieved, and Elphinstone and he devoted all their spare time to reading together. "Jenkins," says Elphinstone, "knows all languages wonderfully." The following letter to Strachey describes their mode of studying:—

"We rise at four and read Sophocles, generally about 200 lines, till it is time to ride. We sometimes read on our return, which takes place about seven. After breakfast, business generally prevents our beginning Xenophon, which is our forenoon's lesson, till eleven; we then read twenty or thirty pages, eat a sandwich, and read separately. I, Tacitus, and the books on the French Revolution, till two; then we read Grotius till evening. I feel extremely the want of method, but am at a loss how to remedy this serious defect."

Elphinstone had only been a few weeks at Nagpoor, when he was ordered to Sindia's camp to relieve Mercer, who was ill. He started with "a camel-load and a half of books, packed with such exquisite art as to be both perfectly secure and perfectly come-at-able," trusting that "the stir of an impending French invasion will uproot every diplomatic man, and throw him 2,500 miles from his place, and me, among others, to Balkh." As he crossed the Nerbudda and approached Sagar he was struck with the change in the country. The people were mostly like those at Benares; the language the same. The following graphic description of Sindia's camp forms part of a letter to his sister:—

"It is difficult to give you an idea of this place. Conceive a king and his court, with all their servants and retinue, a very

small army of regular infantry and irregular cavalry, and a collection of shopkeepers and every other description of people that is found in a town, the whole amounting to 150,000 men, crowded into a camp in which all pitch in confusion, in all kinds and sizes of tents; add one great street with shops of all kinds in tents on each side of it, and, in the middle of the whole, one great enclosure of canvas walls, containing a great number of tents for the accommodation of Sindia and his family; and this will give you as clear a notion of a Mahratta camp as it is possible to have of so confused a thing. Now figure the same people with their tents and baggage loaded on elephants, camels, bullocks, and ponies, all mixed up together, and straggling over the country, for fifteen miles in length and two or three in breadth, and you have a notion of the same army marching. The confusion of the Government is greater than that of the camp on line of march. When I arrived, Sindia and all his ministers were confined by a body of troops, who had mutinied for pay. The ministers were kept without eating; but the prince, who was allowed to do as he pleased, was very little affected by the state of affairs, and spent his days very comfortably in playing cards with his favourites. This prevented my seeing Sindia for a week, after which he received me with great splendour; and from the show and regularity of his Court one would have thought there had never been such a thing as a mutiny heard of. But within a fortnight another much more serious mutiny broke out, and there was very near being a battle. In this way Sindia wanders over all the centre of Hindustan, levying his own revenue, and plundering his weaker neighbours, with no variety, except that he sometimes halts during the rainy season, sometimes has a fort to besiege, and sometimes a battle to fight."

A few weeks after we find him telling Strachey in confidence that he has applied for the Cabul Embassy, and has some hopes of being appointed. He had not long to wait. On the 10th July, 1808, he received orders to proceed immediately to Delhi, on his way to Cabul. "I was so overjoyed," he says in the journal, "that I could not help shoving Saitoo out of the way, and making two steps to Close's tent. He is to succeed me here." After reaching Delhi he was kept waiting six weeks for his instructions, and was at first much mortified at the treatment which he received. The number of European officers attached to the Mission was smaller than he had had under him at Nagpoor, and with the exception of Richard Strachey, who was appointed Secretary to the Embassy, they were all

persons whose names he had never heard. He was not even allowed to choose his own surgeon. His escort was much smaller than he had expected. He, who had seen the equipment of every Residency in India, was desired to submit the list of his establishment to a gentleman who had never seen a single Residency. Nevertheless the Mission started from Delhi in October, 1808, on a scale of great magnificence. The route selected lay through the desert which intervenes between the Rajpoot States and the Indus; but as the Raja of Bikaner, who was then at war with the ruler of Joudhpoor on one side, and Meer Khan on the other, had closed the mouths of the wells, to check the advance of their armies, the Mission was obliged to take a circuitous route to avoid their line of march. Sometimes when they approached the villages the inhabitants supposed that they belonged to the predatory bands which infested the country, and crowded to their fortifications of thorn-hedges with lighted matches, threatening to fire, and in one instance actually firing a few shots. The following extract from a letter to his sister gives a vivid description of the impression made on the travellers by the vegetation and climate as they advanced:—

“After some more days of mountains and days of torrents, we came into a most delightful valley at a place called Cohaut. Before you can understand how much we enjoyed this, I must tell you that in India we have scarcely a single European tree, flower or weed; that the climate and country have not the smallest resemblance to those at home, and that the trees keep their leaves all the year, and we have neither winter nor spring. At Cohaut, on the contrary, the spring was just beginning, and the hills within five or six miles were covered with snow. The ground was covered with thick green grass, with all the common English weeds. The trees, which were willow, were just budding, and the blossoms of the apple, plum, cherry, &c., were just coming out. A branch of a plant, very famous in India for a perfume that is made of it, and which is there called *beedee mishk* (musk-willow), was brought to me; and conceive my surprise when I found it the common thing which in Scotland we call palm, and which grows in such abundance on the little mount near the policy, and close to the place which we used to call Castle Dubbs! When I smelt it I almost thought myself at Cumbernauld.”

This passage reminds one of the cry of joy with which

Rousseau exclaimed, "Ah! voilà de la pervenche," and thought of the flower pointed out to him thirty years before by Madame de Warens on their way to the house at "Les Charmettes." It also recalls Baber's feelings on tasting a musk-melon in India. "They very recently brought me," Baber writes, "a single musk-melon. While cutting it up, I felt myself affected with a strong feeling of loneliness, and a sense of my exile from my native country; and I could not help shedding tears while I was eating it."

The Mission never got further than Peshawur. The following account of Elphinstone's first audience with Shah Shujah is given in his journal :

"After all was arranged, the King of Cabul asked after the king, then how long we had been from Delhi, and, I believe, some similar questions. I was then whispered to tell the other gentlemen to retire, which was done. The king then desired Strachey and me to advance and be seated. We advanced a little short of the place pointed out to us, and sat down, when the king began to talk of his friendship for the Government, to which I gave a suitable reply. I then mentioned I had a letter, which I would deliver if desired. The king consented, and Meerza Shereef produced the letter. I had given it to the chaush bashee to be delivered to me in the room; an arrangement he had suggested, for the purpose, no doubt, of preventing my attempting to deliver it into the king's own hand. Meerza Shereef read it aloud and well, and the king again spoke of the friendship, and his desire that it should increase. I made the best replies I could, and his Majesty then asked about England. When I had explained to him that the climate, fruits and trees were the same as those of Cabul, he said, 'Then the two kingdoms are made by nature to be united,' and renewed his professions of friendship. I then asked whether he would hear my business now, or at another audience, and, on his replying 'Now,' I got up and briefly stated the cause of the embassy. The king made very friendly replies, and talked very boldly of the strength of his empire. Meerza Shereef generally repeated what I said to the king, but I was twice obliged to correct his repetition. Instead of stating that the Governor-General left the detail of the treaty to him, as his country was first to be attacked, he said in general terms that we had come to offer our services in any way; and on my explaining the particular danger we wished to aid in repelling, he represented us as coming to seek his Majesty's powerful protection; on which I, with a clear voice, said, that if (which God avert) the Afghan

dominions should be conquered, Providence had given us the means of defending those of the King of England, and of severely chastising any one who should presume to attack them. But as union was the best of policy, and we were deeply interested in his Majesty's welfare, we were anxious for his Majesty's safety, &c. After the king's declaring that he would with pleasure agree to anything we wished, I proposed a treaty, which I said was the manner of expressing friendship among kings; and the king immediately agreed, and said he would hereafter arrange that as we desired."

Elphinstone gives some ludicrous instances of the ignorance which prevailed among the common people:

"They have no conception of our nation or religion. We have been taken for Syuds, Moguls, Patans and Hindoos. A man asked Irvine if the ambassador was a Brahmin. Some people asked Macwhirter whether his coat was made of leather (perhaps meaning skin or fur). They asked him what he was. He said, in joke, a Syud. They had remarked some impropriety in his way of returning a salute. When Macartney joined soon after, and replied to Salam Alaikoom in the proper way, one whispered the other that he was a Patan. A villager in conversation asked Pitman if he knew Pushtoo. Another, better informed, stopped him with, 'Pooh, man, they know everything!'"

In another passage of the journal Elphinstone notices the misgovernment which prevailed:

"I know little of the details of the internal government; it must be execrable. Merchants are afraid to produce their goods, lest they should be seized. It is doubted whether I can get a house for some of my people, because we belong to the king, and his Majesty's people never part with anything they once get hold of. Our soorsaut, I understand, is levied on the town, and our dresses were taken from bankers, without, as I understand, even the ceremony of a promise of repayment. In course of our ride this morning we saw a couple of Persian-looking men, who had turned their mules loose in a field of wheat, and were waiting till they had fed."

The Mission had no political results. It was despatched because the embassy of General Gardane to Persia, in 1808, and other circumstances, seemed to render it probable that Napoleon contemplated an invasion of India in alliance with Turkey and Persia, and it was thought that by despatching simultaneous Missions to Sind and Lahore, the rulers of these

three states might be induced to unite in a general league against the French. But the course of events in Europe compelled Napoleon to lay aside his dreams of Eastern conquests. Even before Elphinstone left Delhi, in October, 1808, the Peninsular war had begun, and the news of General Wellesley's victories in Portugal reached him at Peshawur. The policy of the Government of India underwent a change. The idea of offensive operations against Persia, a scheme to which Elphinstone was strongly opposed, was abandoned. Lord Minto, who had been under the impression that the power of Shah Shujah was well established, was soon undeceived by the reports of the Envoy. Candahar and Cashmere were in rebellion, and the king had only Cabul and Peshawur, with a very limited kind of authority over the hills. Cabul itself was threatened by Mahmoud. A revolution was impending, and although the king pressed Elphinstone to stay, and even hinted that he should go on to Cabul, the Envoy took his leave of the Court in June. The following incident, which occurred a few weeks before his departure, shows that the position of the embassy was not always a very safe one:

"On the night when Ameer ool Moolk came here a report went about that the pundit had been seized on his way to Cabul, carrying letters, and perhaps money, to Shah Mahmoud. This was soon improved by an addition that the king had determined to plunder us, and the order was just about to be issued. On this, about 500 people collected round the doors, and people in all quarters of the town were getting their arms in order, till it was found to be a mistake; they separated without any violence or outrage. It was lucky that Akram Khan happened to come at the time he did; for if the crowd had stayed all night, any accident, a cry that the order had come, or any roughness on the part of our people, might have produced an attack on us."

The Mission, after leaving Peshawur, marched by Attock to Hussan Abdaul and Rawul Pindee, staying some time at each. In the meantime the king, who had moved out of Peshawur about the same time, had been attacked and defeated by Mahmoud, and his harem was sent for safety to Rawul Pindee. Elphinstone had an interview there with Shah Zemaun, whom he described to Strachey as "handsome, manly, and dignified, apparently depressed by his misfortunes, but not broken or dejected. His eyes are not so disfigured as to affect the expression of his countenance. It was a melan-

choly thing to see Shah Zemaun blind and a fugitive in the very country into which he had so often led victorious armies. Even the Sikhs were struck with this." The following characteristic passage occurs in the same letter :—

"If I am not forbid, which I do not apprehend, I shall go straight to Calcutta on my return, and hope to see you on my way. At present I am going on quietly enough, for this gloomy season; but even marching does not keep off the blue devils. I have, however, written a pamphlet against them, to which I was about to put the finishing stroke by proving that they rendered their victims incapable of great actions, when I stumbled on the following extract from Aristotle, which I send you, as you were once a blue devil, though you have now left off trade :—*Πάντες ὅσοι περιττοὶ γέγονασιν ἀνδρες, ἢ κατὰ φιλοσοφίαν ἢ πολιτείαν ἢ ποίησιν ἢ τέχνας, φαίνονται μελαγχολικοὶ ὄντες.* 'All who have become eminent, either in philosophy, politics, poetry or the arts, appear to have been subject to the blue devils.'"

The Mission was now virtually at an end; but it was some weeks before the Envoy received his letter of recall, and several months before the embassy was formally dissolved, during which time Elphinstone and his coadjutors were occupied in preparing a report on the country which they had visited. In this way Elphinstone remained in Upper India until June, 1810, when he was summoned to Calcutta, where he wound up his Mission and his report.

A somewhat mortifying incident of this part of his career is noticed at some length in the biography. Sind had at a former period been conquered by Ahmed Shah Dooraunee, but the chiefs of the Tulpooree family had succeeded in throwing off the Dooraunee yoke about thirty years before, and acquired a semi-independent position on condition of accepting their investiture from the Court of Cabul and paying an annual tribute. This tribute had been very irregularly remitted, only eight lakhs having been sent instead of thirty; and when Elphinstone was at Peshawur the King of Cabul, who had never renounced his rights to the full sovereignty of Sind, was preparing to assert his claims by force of arms. On the other hand, the French, in concert with Persia, had extended their intrigues to Sind, and as the chiefs of that province had despatched vakeels to solicit the support of the Court of Persia against the King of Cabul, the Government of India thought that an invading army might advance by

that route and attack the British dominions. While therefore cautioning their Envoy not to pledge the aid of our power except in the case of a positive confederacy between Sind and Persia, they had intimated that in the event of that contingency arising they would probably feel compelled to support and enforce the king's claims on Sind. The Dooraunee Government began by proposing that the Government of India should "rent Sind," and on this offer being summarily rejected by the Envoy, expressed its willingness to cede all its rights to that province in consideration of an annual payment. About this time Elphinstone received intelligence that the chiefs of Sind, after cordially welcoming the agent of France and Persia, had dismissed Mr. Smith, the British Envoy, immediately on his arrival at Hyderabad. This intelligence afterwards proved to be erroneous; but Elphinstone, with the information before him, considered that the contingency provided for in his instructions had arrived, and he submitted the king's proposal for the consideration of the Governor-General, adding that a moderate subsidy would give the king such a preponderance over his rivals as to render his throne stable and bind him to our interests against any invasion from the West. By this time, however, the Government knew that the danger of which they had been apprehensive had passed away; but, not content with rejecting the proposal, they considered themselves entitled to take a high moral tone, observing that "considerations intimately connected with those fundamental principles of political discretion, as well as of political morality, by which alone the true honour and prosperity of the British empire in the East can be permanently maintained, would, under any circumstances, oppose the adoption of that project; whilst its practicability and success were too doubtful to warrant the attempt, even if it were unopposed by the dictates of prudent policy and the obligations of political justice."

Elphinstone's dignified reply to this unmerited rebuke is given by his biographer; but he tells us that in his journal and letters Elphinstone never reverted to this period of his career without some expression of dissatisfaction.

Elphinstone was barely thirty when he returned from the Cabul Embassy. Shortly after his arrival at Calcutta he was appointed Resident at Poona, and embarked in January, 1811, on board a coasting vessel belonging to an Arab merchant of

Muscat, visiting Ceylon and Goa on his way. The Inquisition was at that time still in existence, but Englishmen were not allowed to visit the building. At Bombay he met Sir James Mackintosh, who urged him to publish a work on Cabul. Encouraged by his advice, Elphinstone, after he had reached Poona, began to devote all his leisure hours to interrogating Affghans respecting their particular tribes and connections, and in this way acquired a much more intimate knowledge of the whole subject than he before possessed. The following reflections occur in his journal at this period :—

“ I have been reading Gibbon's *Memoirs*, in the hope that, as they first gave me a love for study, they may now inspire me with some ardour in my present undertaking. I have not been disappointed; but I cannot help contrasting Gibbon's situation with mine.

“ Setting aside his natural genius, which makes the difference too great for comparison, I observe that his life, except while in the militia, was spent in study; that he early acquired a taste for composition, which made him regard that exercise as a pleasure; that when he was writing he enjoyed undivided leisure, and, even in the times of his early studies, he thought attendance at meals and paying visits once a month a hardship; that he lived in the midst of books and of eminent men; and that from the first he had the confidence and ease of a master. I have spent the bulk of my time in a sort of business which does not tend to qualify me for an author, or in travelling, dissipation or idleness. My times of study have been only specks on this dull mass. In consequence of this, and perhaps of my earlier education, I am almost entirely disqualified from either thinking or writing like an author. I delight in inquiring and in gaining knowledge of the subject of which I am to treat, and in this I go on with vigour and rapidity; but I detest composition, which is to me a labour; and when I have only to rely on my own imagination and understanding my steps are slow, feeble and in darkness. I am, besides, liable to constant interruptions from business and from society; much of my time is lost in the hours which it is necessary with me to devote to meals, and thus the little portion of the day which I can allot exclusively to my work is liable to frequent interruptions. Nor is my society of any use to my taste or understanding. I seldom see among my visitors a man of any talents, and never a literary man; and, having grown up in these circumstances, I think and write on literary subjects with doubt and hesitation. These circumstances are unfavourable, but I have some advantage, and I am far from discouraged.”

His plan of life at this time was to ride ten to twenty miles in the morning and then go through some gymnastics. Public business and private correspondence occupied him from ten to two. A luncheon of sandwiches and figs and a glass of water was followed by a siesta of half an hour. "I then begin," he says in his journal, "to read or examine people about the Affghans, on the subject of whom I am almost determined to publish. In the evening I used to drive out; I now do the *kusrut** a second time. I dine on a few potatoes and one or two glasses of claret and water, and then, after reading for some time, go to sleep at eleven."

When Elphinstone entered on his duties as Resident he noticed a great change in the condition of the country. The authority of the Peshwa, which was at its lowest ebb during the Assaye campaign, had been gradually restored throughout the territory under his immediate administration. But the Peshwa's relations with the great feudatories, among whom more than half of his dominions were parcelled out, were in the same unsettled state. Several of these chiefs had taken advantage of the troubled times to enlarge their own territory, and aimed at shaking off the Peshwa's yoke. The Peshwa's object was to crush the Jageerdars without the aid of British troops. Elphinstone submitted a scheme for adjusting these claims, and for the extirpation of piracy, which was openly practised in the territory of the Rajas of Colapoor and Sawunt Warree. This plan, which involved the employment of a considerable military force, was approved by Lord Minto, and after some opposition from Sir Samuel Auchmuty, who objected to operations in the monsoon, was successfully carried out. As soon as the Jageerdars had given in their adhesion, the Peshwa, although he had now a feudal militia at his command, at once proceeded to raise a brigade for defence against his vassals, and placed it under the orders of Captain Ford, who had been commanding the Resident's escort.

Elphinstone's book advanced slowly amid the interruptions caused by the settlement of the affairs of the Jageerdars; but at last, on the 7th June, 1814, the manuscript was despatched. He at once formed fresh plans for studying. He had found a congenial companion in Jeffreys, a young medical officer, with whom he had already read Lucan and Lucretius. He had studied Dante with Lady Hood, and had gone through

the *Iliad* in fourteen days with Jenkins, who came to visit him. He now writes :

"Jeffreys and I began on a plan of acquiring a sound and solid acquaintance with Greek, in which I see great attention to the grammar and to minutiae of all sorts is absolutely necessary. We are to read the '*Port Royal*,' repeat paradigms, and read the *Collectanea* carefully, examining every word and passing none till thoroughly understood. We read an extract of Herodotus in this manner with great patience and with great profit. Three or four months of similar diligence would make me a good Greek scholar. •The effort will be nothing to what I have just surmounted, and I may reckon it the chief business of my private hours. I ought therefore to be able to persevere and reap the great reward."

The journals of this period are full of descriptions of buildings and scenery, interspersed with remarks on books and resolutions for self-improvement. One of the habits of which he resolved to break himself about this time was that of snuff-taking. The following entries show how he set about it :

"July 15.—I have been thinking of leaving off snuff for some time. To-day I met with an observation in a review of a novel which has almost determined me. It is on the utility of accustoming oneself to breaking habits, and to other exertions of self-denial. It becomes the more necessary, as it will really now be somewhat of an effort. I will leave it off on the 18th. *Fiat!* Not to mention it to anyone for at least a week after I have left off.

"July 16.—I have sent my snuff to be packed up in the outhouse, and have only kept enough for to-day and to-morrow. The way I adopted was first to change my common snuff for some of a disagreeable kind, and then leave off altogether."

"There is frequent reference in this volume," says Sir T. E. Colebrooke, "to another resolution, which is not specified. 'I have taken,' he says, 'a resolution which it must be my great care not to let slip my memory. With this view I intend to enter a note, either here or elsewhere, of my progress as often as I write my journal, and if possible once a week.' This would not seem to have reference to a very strong trial, or it would not have required this constant reminder. During the following twelvemonth the entries in the journal conclude regularly with the mysterious words, '*Res. safe.*'"

Elphinstone's *Account of the Kingdom of Caubul* was published in 1815, and a somewhat ill-natured review of it appeared in the October number of the *Quarterly Review*. The reviewer assumed—quite erroneously—that the book was little more than a transcript of the official report of the Mission. He found fault with the Indian Government for not sending scientific men with the Mission, and complained that there was not a vestige in the book of antiquarian research and no adequate attempt to investigate the zoology, botany or mineralogy of the countries visited. The system of spelling Oriental words adopted seemed to him to savour of affectation. The map placed at the head of the work could not be very correct, because only a small portion of Afghanistan had been visited by the Mission, and owing to the same cause much of the information contained in it was second-hand. He admitted, however, that the author seemed a modest, sensible and industrious man, who had observed much and had exercised sound discretion in selecting and arranging the information of others. A sneering review of Humboldt's *Travels* appeared in the very next number of the same journal, and Elphinstone, writing to Lady Hood, says, "I am not so conceited as to imagine that I ever deserved to be abused in the same terms with Humboldt, but still my vanity is tickled by the coincidence." The work was soon accepted as the standard book on the subject, and established Elphinstone's literary reputation.

The year of the publication of Elphinstone's *Cabul* was an eventful one in the annals of the Poona Residency, and we must turn for a moment to the Peshwa. Elphinstone, after describing Bajee Row's cowardice, treachery and vindictiveness, draws a strange picture of the dissolute Court of this Brahmin prince :

"He is a slave to superstition ; half his life is spent in fasts, prayers and pilgrimages. A large portion of his revenue is consumed in magical practices, and his life is disturbed by his attention to prodigies and omens. His superstition imposes no restraint upon his pleasures, and the greater part of his time that is not occupied by religion is devoted to vicious indulgences."

About this time Trimbukjee Danglia, a menial servant of the Peshwa, a man so illiterate that he had not even learned to read, was raised to the office of Prime Minister. Negotiations and correspondence had been going on for a long

time between the Peshwa and the Guikwar regarding certain outstanding claims, and Gungadhar Shastree had arrived as an envoy from the Baroda Government for the settlement of these questions. This man, who felt that his mission was a perilous one, demanded a guarantee of safety from the British Government, but the Peshwa endeavoured to lull his fears by offering a matrimonial alliance between his own sister-in-law and the Shastree's son, and the engagement was far advanced when the Shastree imprudently broke it off, and gave still more deadly cause of offence by forbidding the ladies of his family to have any intercourse with the abandoned Court which he found at Poona. He was murdered on the 14th July, 1815, by hired assassins in the open street, at a place of pilgrimage to which he had accompanied the Peshwa.

Elphinstone demanded the immediate apprehension of Trimbukjee and two other persons named by him as implicated in this crime. "A foreign ambassador," he wrote, "has been murdered in the midst of your Highness's court. A Brahmin has been massacred almost in the Temple during one of the greatest solemnities of your religion; and I must not conceal from your Highness the impunity of the perpetrators of this enormity has led to imputations not to be thought of against your Highness's Government."

The panic-stricken Peshwa shuffled and evaded the Resident's demands as long as he could, but at last he gave up Trimbukjee. The Supreme Government very unwisely fixed on the fort of Tannah, in the island of Salsette, as the place of his imprisonment. There he was placed under a guard consisting of European soldiers, who saw a Mahratta groom leading an English officer's horse under the terrace where Trimbukjee was allowed to walk, but did not understand that the song which the man was singing was an invitation to the prisoner to escape by a hole made for him in the wall of an outhouse. Trimbukjee was soon at large, and fled to the hills about a year after his apprehension. Intelligence now reached Elphinstone of gatherings of armed men. Mahratta plunderers took the field. The Peshwa and his old Minister had an interview within seventeen miles of Poona. The Resident's remonstrances were unheeded, and in spite of the secrecy of Bajee Row's proceedings Elphinstone saw clearly that he had made up his mind to embark in an extensive Mahratta confederacy against the English. The

critical state at which affairs at last arrived is vividly described by Lieut.-General Briggs, who at this period was Elphinstone's third assistant :

"One night, after a day that had been passed in considerable anxiety, owing to reports of troops brought into the town, I received certain information that the cattle for the guns had been sent for, and had arrived an hour before; that the artillery were drawn up in front of the park; that the streets were full of mounted men; and that the Peshwa was in full durbar discussing with his chiefs the subject of immediate war. I hastened to inform Mr. Elphinstone, whom I found sitting in a large tent engaged in playing a round game of cards with a party, among whom were several ladies. He saw me enter, and observed my anxiety to speak to him; but he continued his game as usual for half an hour, when, after handing the last lady of the party into her palankeen, he came up to me rubbing his hands, and said, 'Well, what is it?' I told him the news, which he received with great *sang-froid*, and we walked together to the Residency office. There we encountered the European Commandant of the Contingent, above alluded to; on which Mr. Elphinstone asked him the latest news from the city. He appeared not to be aware of what was in progress, but observed that the Minister, whom he had just left, had told him that the Peshwa had discharged some of the troops lately enlisted, and that all was quiet. Mr. Elphinstone then called on me to state what I had heard, and distinctly told the Commandant that he did not believe a word that he said. The latter said that his information was from the *Minister himself*, and that as to the troops in the streets he did not observe any beyond the usual patrols, and knew nothing about the arrival of gun bullocks. The moment was critical; the Residency was incapable of being properly defended, especially by the ordinary escort, and the idea of attacking the Peshwa at once from the cantonment, though hastily expressed, was subsequently abandoned. Mr. Elphinstone resolved to defer doing anything until the morning, and then to take such precautionary measures as he might deem proper. I believe neither I nor he had much sleep during that anxious night. The night fortunately passed quietly; owing, as was said, to the opposition to war evinced by some of the ministers. Bajee Row was physically an arrant coward; he had always displayed this weakness, and was not ashamed to avow it. No steps were therefore taken by either party during the night, but in the morning a requisition for a reinforcement was made, and two guns accompanied it to the Residency."

The Peshwa was now alarmed, and in an interview with

Elphinstone solemnly assured him that he had no hostile intentions. "How could one," he urged, "so constitutionally timid as to be alarmed at the sound of cannon, who requires that no salute shall be fired till he has passed on to a certain distance, ever think of setting himself up as a warrior, and placing himself at the head of an army?" The only result was a written demand for the surrender of Trimbukjee, and the immediate cession of three important forts, as a pledge of his sincerity. After some further shuffling these terms were accepted, and almost immediately afterwards important despatches arrived from Calcutta. The Governor-General required the Peshwa to close all correspondence with foreign States, dismiss all his vassals, acknowledge his dependence upon the British power, surrender all claim to the titular headship of the Mahratta empire, acknowledge his belief in Trimbukjee's guilt, and cede some territory. A treaty embodying these hard terms was extorted from the Peshwa on the 13th June, 1817. On the very next day Elphinstone received instructions notifying the appointment of Sir T. Hislop to the general control of the Deekan, both in the Pindarree war and in the operations to which the disputes with the Peshwa might lead. He was naturally a good deal mortified at finding himself thus practically superseded. He guessed that "it was a push of Malcolm to add everything he could to his own credit." Such was, in fact, the case. Malcolm was sent from Calcutta on a tour of visits to the principal native Courts, under instructions from Government to sound and report on their dispositions and designs. He arrived at Poona in August, and immediately proceeded to join the Peshwa, who had gone on a pilgrimage to Punderpoor. The protestations of the wily Mahratta, which had failed to convince Elphinstone, imposed on Malcolm, and the greater part of the subsidiary force was directed to advance to the north, and take part in the general campaign, while the defence of the cantonment of Poona was left to three weak battalions of Sepoys. The Peshwa, under pretence of aiding in the destruction of the Pindarrees, began levying troops. The most open attempts were made to corrupt the Sepoys, and the position became most perilous. Orders were therefore sent to hasten the march of a European regiment from Bombay, and General Smith was requested to send back a battalion from Secroor. The Peshwa and his advisers deliber-

ated for several nights on the advantage of surprising the troops before these reinforcements arrived, and a little before midnight on the 28th October intelligence was brought to Elphinstone that all was in readiness for an immediate attack. Grant Duff has described how Elphinstone stood listening on his terrace to the noise and uproar in the Peshwa's camp, while the cantonment and Residency were perfectly still ; but the Peshwa could not make up his mind to give the final order, and Elphinstone was unwilling to precipitate matters. The din died away, and the eventful night passed. On the 30th October the British battalion marched into the cantonment, and the whole force was moved to an open position near the village of Kirkee. On the morning of the 5th November the Peshwa, whose forces had been daily reinforced by the arrival of fresh levies, sent an insolent message to the Resident, demanding the meaning of his preparations, and calling on him to send away the European regiment. What followed is described by Elphinstone in a letter to Close, dated the 11th November :—

“ I refused, but said I was most anxious for peace, and should not cross the river towards Poona, but if his army came towards ours we should attack it. Within an hour after out they came, with such readiness that we had only time to leave the Sungum with the clothes on our backs, and crossing the river at a ford under Clielands, march off to the bridge with the river between us and the enemy, and a little firing but no real fighting. The Sungum, with all the records and all my books, journals, letters, manuscripts, &c., were soon in a blaze ; but we got safe to the Kirkee bridge, and soon after joined the line. While the men and followers were fording we went ourselves to observe the enemy. The sight was magnificent, as the tide rolled out of Poona. Grant, who saw it from the height over the powder cave, described it as resembling the Bore in the Gulf of Cambay. Everything was hushed except the trampling and neighing of horses, and the whole valley was filled with them, like a river in flood. I had always told Colonel Burr that when war broke out we must recover our character by a forward movement, that should encourage and fire our own men, while it checked our enemies ; and I now by a lucky mistake, instead of merely announcing that the Peshwa was at war, sent an order to move down at once and attack him. Without this, Colonel Burr has since told me he certainly would not have advanced. However, he did advance, we joined, and, after some unavoidable delay, the Dapoorree battalion joined too—2nd Company 1st-7th

Europ. Regiment, 2nd-1st Dap. Batt. When opposite to the nullah, where there used to be a plantain garden, we (injudiciously I think) halted to cannonade, and at the same moment the enemy began from twelve to fifteen guns. Soon after his whole mass of cavalry came on at speed in the most splendid style. The rush of horse, the sound of the earth, the waving of flags, the brandishing of spears, were grand beyond description; but perfectly ineffectual. One great body, however, Gocla and Moro Dixit and some others, formed on our left and rear, and when the 1st-7th was drawn off by its ardour to attack Major Pinto, who appeared on our left, and was quite separated from the European Regiment, this body charged with great vigour, and broke through between it and the European Regiment. At this time the rest of the line was pretty well occupied with shot, matchlocks, and above all with rockéts, and I own I thought there was a good chance of our losing the battle. The 1st-7th, however, though it had expended all its ammunition, survived the charge, and was brought back on the line by Colonel Burr, who showed infinite coolness and courage, and after some more firing, and some advancing, together with detaching a few companies on our right towards the little hill of Gunaishkind, we found ourselves alone in the field, and the sun long set. . . . We did not lose 100 men altogether, and we have quite set up our name again. Our life here is delightful: no plots and cares, but idling, looking through spy-glasses, and expecting another field day. That the Peshwa should not give us one before General Smith comes in (which he will by the fourteenth) is incredible, but the Mahrattas are unaccountable animals."

General Smith arrived on the 13th, and found the Peshwa's army on the bank of the river below the Residency, ~~near~~ Gurpeer. On the 17th he advanced to the attack, but ~~the~~ the camp empty. The Peshwa had abandoned his capital for ever.

The journals and correspondence give us glimpses of Elphinstone's private life during these eventful years of his life at Poona. Writing to Strachey in February, 1816, when the surrender and imprisonment of Trimbukjee had given him a little rest, he says:—

"In September last our preparations were immediately laid aside, and some time after the Peshwa dispersed his troops, and everything is now quieter than before. I used to be constantly employed in resisting the encroachments and intrigues of the former Minister, and now I have time to read Cicero till twelve every day, and Herodotus with Jeffreys (the doctor) from six

o'clock till dinner time. I hope my godson will know more Greek at ten than I do after twenty years' reading it, off and on. We have a hog hunt that goes out every second Wednesday, in the evening, to some place from ten to twenty miles off, hunts on Thursday, returning on Friday to breakfast. We hog-hunt till two, then tiff, and hawk or course till dusk. This has gone on since this time last year without inconvenience, except that I have lost the skin of my nose from the sun every time we have been out. We do not throw our spears in the old way, but poke with spears longer than the common ones, and never part with them."

R. M. *MACDONALD.

(To be continued.)

THE POISON TREE. A Tale of Hindu Life in Bengal. By Bankim Chandra Chatterjee. Translated by Miriam S. Knight. With a Preface by Edwin Arnold, C.S.I. London: T. Fisher Unwin.

THERE is still, as we pointed out in a former article, in this country a too widely-spread ignorance of the real life and ways of thinking of our Aryan fellow-subjects in the East. It is doubtless a subject on which hitherto, from various obvious causes, information was scarcely accessible.

We suggested that it was to Indians themselves that we must look in great measure to diminish this ignorance and consequent want of sympathy, and we gladly hailed the appearance of Mr. Lal Behari Day's *Tale of Rural Life in Bengal* as a step in that direction. Another step is the book we propose to review.

The author of *The Poison Tree* is Babu Bankim Chandra Chatterjee, a Bengali gentleman of high culture and distinguished renown among his countrymen as "the first living writer of fiction in his Presidency." These are the words of Mr. Edwin Arnold, who furnishes a Preface to the translation which has now brought the *Bisha Briksha*, or *Poison Tree*, before the English public. We need not dwell on the value of Mr. Arnold's praise, liberally given to this work, well acquainted as the world is with his high Oriental attainments; and to readers of this *Journal* the skill of the translator, Mrs. Knight, is equally well known. The object in which we said this book is calculated to aid is, we think, better served by the original being not in English but in Bengali. Excellent, for example, as Mr. L. B. Day's English writing is, we must inevitably get a more complete and lifelike view of the personages portrayed

when it is done in the very language they thought and spoke in ; in a book, therefore, written for them, not for us—not consciously and carefully adapted to our literary and moral atmosphere. It represents modern Hindu life, no doubt ; but it is a life, a mode of thought and language and action totally distinct from ours, thoroughly Oriental and national. All this the translator has preserved with marvellous skill, while making it an agreeable and readable story even to the Western mind. Mrs. Knight's long acquaintance, not only with the Bengali language, but the Bengali people, would ensure the fidelity of her performance, and it bears besides on its own face the stamp of truth, in tone, colour, characters and handling, and, to rise to higher considerations, in the code of morality it presents to us. The slight occasional stiffnesses, which must appear in the best translations, serve to guarantee truthfulness, and remove the work out of that land of conventional diction which destroys all sense of reality.

Mr. Chatterjee by no means *poses* as one of the Anglicising or revolutionary school ; but he has, we judge, an intimate acquaintance with European literature, and has adopted the form of the regular modern novel. As such we shall proceed to comment on it.

It is, not only in its origin but from its contents, something unique in English literature, and we shall be much surprised if it does not make a strong impression. There is power in the whole story, from the title all through the successive scenes in which that title is carried out, in which that unsuspected seed is traced from its first tiny sowing to the full-grown tree and deadly fruit, on to the dramatically-contrived and well-wrought end. The first scene—the midnight traveller seeking refuge from the storm in the deserted hut, where he finds the dying Brahmin, and the desolate child watching by him—is vividly given, and secures our interest at once. The apparition has more effectiveness than such incidents have in ordinary fiction, and its prophecy bears a close connexion with the rest of the story. We are not going to forestall the reader's enjoyment of the work itself, but we must praise the characters, as being all distinct and well-drawn, forming a group whose action upon each other is skilfully traced, and all helps to the unwinding and *dénouement* of the story. It is in these, and in the situations and incidents which grow out of the peculiar features of Indian life, together with the

nature, the strength and the pathos with which they are described, that we recognise both the strangeness and yet the flesh-and-blood humanness and the kinship to us in this far-away land and people.

The story, as we have just said, turns upon a feature of Hindu life which has no exact parallel with us, but which is so developed as strongly to call out our sympathies. The hero, happily married to a woman whose sweetness and nobleness combined is the charm of the story, falls madly in love with a young girl, and contemplates marriage with her.

In the handling of this love affair come out at once the likeness and unlikeness to our views of domestic morality. The passion of Nagendra for Kunda, powerfully as it is painted, is impressed upon us as the passion of the senses only; and it rightly turns—as with us, too, such passions do—to bitter dust and ashes. That he wished to marry the girl, and that by Hindu law he was allowed to do it—nay, that he was urged to it by his self-sacrificing wife—does not appear, in the author's eyes, to lessen the criminality of the act nor the shame which the offender feels it to bring upon him. We must suppose that the cruelty involved in it to a faithful woman, the low impulses which led him to the marriage, the unseemliness of the union, altogether made it an act which, though not unlawful, justly offended the moral sense of the community and his own better conscience.

As to the question of the morality of the work in general, at least of its adaptation to our standard of propriety, we can only say that in both respects it stands, in our view, much above the ordinary run of modern fiction, where the handling of passion is supposed to be “intense.” The portrayal of it here is no doubt free and strong; but there is no seductive mischief, no lurking suggestiveness. Virtue and vice are plainly discriminated, right and wrong are never confused. The scenes between Debendra and Hira are no doubt very unpleasant, perhaps to our taste more so than would be scenes of temptation painted in our own way; but the difference may not really be to the discredit of the Indian artist; and to Indian readers, it was no doubt the truest as well as the most wholesome way of handling the subject.

In the domestic relations, while the love between husband and wife is painted with a fulness, a depth and sweetness which might satisfy the most stringent English exactions on

that head, there is in the wife's devotion a tone of servility which recalls to us the low position of women by Hindu law and usage, at least since the corruption of Brahminism, as expressed in the codes and exemplified by polygamy, zenana, imprisonment, suttee, and infanticide. But this language, originally moulded by the harsh Brahminical creed, may be regarded now as a traditional survival, and, used as the utterance of a woman's love, need not be taken more literally than the converse language of European chivalry invented at the time when knights were, theoretically at least, required to render such allegiance to ladies, consecrated by poets, and used even now by lovers, without much thought of being taken at their word. In short, the conventional language of homage to women in the West, and of husband-worship in the East, must be taken in relation to existing facts, and with large deductions for other human tendencies. Women, in the countries where they are confined to the one narrow home-sphere—that is, literally to the four walls of the women's apartment—obtain, doubtless, a strong sway in proportion as their whole powers of managing and influencing are concentrated on it. It is true that the lack of wider knowledge makes their influence a doubtful good; it is often the perpetuation of ignorant superstitious prejudice against the men's better sense. But it is to the purpose to observe here that such purity, tenderness and constancy as we find to be the ideal frequently realised of Indian wifehood and motherhood shows a state of feeling and conduct far superior to that shown by the scornful estimate of women in the classic days; to the brutal contempt of Mahomedanism, which adjudges to women “no souls,” and makes them simply the slaves of their masters' pleasures; and, we may add, to the social state of women in the idle, corrupt, enervated life of the upper classes in many Christian countries, or the miserable drudgery, varied by kicks and manglings, of the unhappy wives of our lowest classes.

It is possible that the author's acquaintance with the position of women in Western society may have unconsciously a little modified his colouring of the relations of the sexes for fictional purposes. But the setting of the whole story—the women's *mahal*, the small, old, ill-built part of the house in whose low, dark, dirty rooms the women are crowded together; the young married lady “who has never set foot

outside the house ;" the menial offices performed by the wives to their husbands, whose feet they clasp and whose name they must not pronounce ; the adoration of the women for the men's beauty ; the inscription "to my Guardian Deity, my Husband, by his Servant"—all exhibit a state of things little, if at all, tinctured by Christian and modern ideas. It is true the new notions advocating widows' marriage and women's emancipation are alluded to as being occasionally heard of in country places ; but they are rather turned into ridicule, even by the author, than taken seriously or put in a favourable light. The marriage of a widow does, indeed, take place, but it is not exactly sanctioned by public opinion.

The women, however, play an important part in this novel. The two characters which please us most are Surjah Mukhi and her husband's sister Kamal. The former is the real heroine of the piece, and is beautifully painted as a true womanly type, at once jealous and magnanimous, proud and devoted ; but Kamal, more lightly touched, has a playfulness, a pretty petulance, a frank-hearted active kindness which make us feel what attractive company she would be. When she enters that mournful dwelling, "it was as though a flower had bloomed in the family house at Govindpur." Kunda, the "girl of a timid nature, who had not the gift of words," who could only love, is very touching. Hira, the Hindu counterpart of the wicked siren of our Western novels, has more originality and also more naturalness than is usual in these figures, and there is a strange, almost ghastly, pathos in her career and its conclusion.

The men are scarcely as interesting. Nagendra, lavishly as he is praised, seems to us not quite worthy of the adoration poured out on him by at least two lovely women ; but this is a case by no means unknown to Western novels or to Western real life. Debendra is powerfully painted as the desperate, self-scorning, wretched debauchee ; and the good Brahmachari, the ascetic, must not be forgotten.

It may be regarded as a sign of the times that there is so little mention of religion ; of the national creed scarcely any. Brahminism, with all its deities, its rites, its feasts, its sacrifices, and its devotions, which seem to occupy so much of the peasant's life and thoughts, appears almost banished from the world of the upper classes. The women and Brahmans are but once introduced as paying 'their morning

worship to Siva and Gunga; but the cultivated gentry speak only of the "Creator," and seem to hold a certain kind of natural religion, while they acknowledge an elevated moral code. The Brahmo Samaj is but once or twice introduced with but doubtful respect; Christianity is not once named.

Full justice will not be done to this very remarkable book if we do not mention its frequent traits of humour and its rich and poetical descriptions of natural objects. The conversations at the bathing *ghat*, the talk of the women's quarter in the Zemindar's house, the foibles of young Bengal, are hit off in a style of keen but quiet pleasantry. And the changes of the seasons, the hours and the weather, the gardens of the wealthy houses, with their luxuriant foliage and blossoms, and the country and river scenery are recorded in words that recall the vivid nature-painting of old Sanskrit poems. We would especially point out the scene of Kunda in Nagendra's garden by moonlight (chap. xviii.), and a few words describing the effect of Benares seen from the Ganges under a starry sky (chap. xxviii.). Mr. Chatterjee paints well with words.

In conclusion, we strongly recommend to our readers *The Poison Tree* as an exciting and impressive novel, a faithful mirror of characters, manners, and life, and a succession of charming pictures of nature and scenery.

ARABELLA SHORE.

OUR DIFFICULTIES AND WANTS IN THE PATH OF THE PROGRESS OF INDIA. By Syed Mohammad Hossain (of Lucknow), M.R.A.C. London: W. H. Allen & Co.

In April, last year, we noticed two Pamphlets by Mr. Mohammad Hossain, on Primary Education, and on Famine Relief Works in Oudh. They expressed the views of an intelligent man, based on practical knowledge and experience. Mr. Hossain's new Pamphlet contains 175 closely-printed pages, as much matter as an ordinary octavo volume, and is, we consider, a valuable contribution towards the solution of the economic problems of the day as they concern our Indian Empire. Its tone, at once earnest and practical, arrests the attention: not that the facts or conclusions are novel, or that it is free from the contradictions which hang about this many-

sided subject ; but that its aim appears to be true and honest. The attempt to graft Western civilisation on Oriental customs and traditions, although successful in some respects, has not hitherto given birth to a happy and prosperous peasantry, nor does it seem to have stimulated a spirit of enterprise among either the agricultural or industrial classes. Speaking of the peasantry, more especially with reference to the province of Oudh, with which he is best acquainted, Mr. Hossain says :

“Formerly they were like beasts—were yoked and whipped to work, but their well-being entirely depended on the care of others, who were naturally bound to keep them in good condition and well fed. Now they are made men, and are freed to some extent from the old conditions to which they had been subject, but they now have the care and anxiety of maintaining their own existence.

“Let us now consider for a moment how far the peace and free trade, which are the gifts of the present Government, have affected the condition of the class in question. . . . It seems quite plain to understand, and needs no logic to prove, that their condition must have been better [under the old regime] than it is at present, if we simply take this point of economy in view, that as there were no channels for the produce of the country to go out, the raw materials, or, in other words, the produce of the land, which comprises the first necessities of life, must have been abundant, and therefore must have been distributed among the people with less regard to economy and frugality. Now, peace and freedom, the construction of good roads and the introduction of railways, have made great changes in the economical theories of the past. We have lost the benefits derived from the share of old Government (the revenue), which was spent entirely in the country ; but, on the other hand, we have gained free trade. And let us assume for a moment here that the gain has been equal to the loss. Still, as we have nothing to give in exchange but the raw materials, or first necessities of life, therefore now the produce of the land is more scantily distributed among the people, in order to export the surplus to other regions.”

And again, another view :

“By the outlay of foreign capital in India, and by the increase of communications, we have gained the advantage of obtaining the commodities of life very cheap and plentiful in every corner of India ; and the more these means of prosperity increase, the more the people will find them very handy ; but no

doubt this expenditure replaces that which formerly passed from one hand to another in the country, and had no tendency to run out of India.

"At present, besides the grain and meat or vegetables which they consume from the produce of the country, nine-tenths of all the necessities of life which the urban people, and half of the necessities which the rural people of all classes use, are manufactured in foreign countries, and are neater, cheaper and more decent than the things for which they are substituted."

Of course, this means the gradual extinction of some native manufactures and the decay of others, more especially the commonest description of textile fabrics, which have been replaced by the cheaper Manchester goods.

Mr. Hossain goes on to point out that Indian exports consist principally of raw material, much of which is returned to India in the shape of manufactured goods.

"For example (he says) take hides; first we send them abroad; then we re-import them in the shape of patent leather, and pay four or five times the price which we originally received for the hides; we then make the leather into shoes, and sell them at half the price of English shoes of the same stuff and style sold in our own country. This is owing to the cheapness of wages."

It is often said that India is over-governed, and that the people have been reduced to a state of dependence, expecting everything to be done for them. But the Englishman, living under the same conditions, rises above them; and by his capital and energy is gradually utilising the raw material which the country so bountifully supplies—turning its jute into gunny bags, its cotton into cloth, its fibres into paper, its hides into leather and manufactures of leather, and thus giving employment to a large and continually increasing number of hands.

Why have the Natives of India taken little or no part in the promotion of this great industrial movement? Mr. Hossain supplies the answer in words which, with slight variation, stand as a refrain to every chapter in his book:

"I have come to the conclusion that all the forces above referred to [legislation, encouragement of commerce, improved methods of agriculture, education, local self-government, emigration] would remain in equilibrium, and would produce no resultant to elevate the material wealth of the country, unless

some other forces were applied, and those other forces can be nothing else but *individual energy* and *native capital*." And these, as we know, are wanting.

Mr. Hossain's chapter on Improvement in Agriculture is perhaps the most important in the book. It ought to be, and we hope will be, read widely by those whom it concerns, and we would fain hope with more practical results than the writer anticipates. Mr. Hossain intends shortly to return to India, having studied methods of agriculture and the great problems of land and labour at the Royal Agricultural College at Cirencester, and in most of the agricultural counties of Great Britain and Ireland, and we heartily wish him success in his endeavours to enlighten his countrymen on these most important subjects.

J. B. KNIGHT.

ENERGY IN NATURE. By Wm. Lant Carpenter, B.A., B.Sc., Fellow of the Chemical and Physical Societies, and of the Society of Chemical Industry; Lecturer for the Gilchrist Educational Trust. With 80 illustrations. Cassell and Co. Price, 3/6.

"Under the title of *Energy in Nature*, Mr. W. Lant Carpenter has gathered together in a single volume the substance of his course of six lectures upon natural forces and their relations, delivered by him some time since in various towns in Lancashire, at the invitation of the Committee of the Gilchrist Educational Trust. His treatment of this great and, to many, mysterious subject is, in the best sense of the term, popular; that is to say, the author employs simple language, using no technical terms but such as he is careful to explain; while, on the other hand, there is no attempt to relieve a serious theme with those idle irrelevancies with which lecturers who are addressing an unscientific audience on scientific subjects sometimes think it incumbent on them to garnish their discourse. Those who would understand the doctrine of conservation of energy—that key to the operations of Nature which has been won for our enlightenment almost within the memory of the present generation—must indeed be prepared for a considerable amount of earnest study, and some exercise of the power

of *thinking abstractedly. Equipped with these requisites, however, there is nothing to prevent the reader of this modest volume from carrying away a clear conception of what is meant when natural philosophy tells us that the phenomena of gravity, chemical affinity, electricity, light, magnetism, and heat are but so many manifestations of the transformation of 'energy.' If it is disappointing to know that we can go no further than this, there is consolation in the thought that a firm grasp of sound theory is of inestimable value to the student of Nature, and is indeed an indispensable condition of correct observation, and of a clear conception of what is going on in the universe; for no less extensive is the field which the doctrine of the conservation of energy embraces. Mr. Carpenter, as a distinguished man of science himself, and the son of one to whose labours the philosophy of matter and motion, as now established, owes not a little, is, we need hardly say, fully entitled to speak with authority on these subjects. It must not, however, be inferred from what we have said that his lectures are occupied exclusively with the exposition of theories. On the contrary, they are enlivened by numerous references to their practical application, extending even to matters so recent as 'ensilage,' or storing green fodder in pits, and the system of electric lighting at the Savoy Theatre."—*Daily News*.

SOCIAL AND PHILANTHROPIC INSTITUTIONS OF THE WEST.

XII.—THE BIRKBECK LITERARY AND SCIENTIFIC INSTITUTION, CHANCERY LANE.

The object of this Institution is to provide evening classes of a thorough character, and on the most moderate terms, for the benefit of young men and young women who are fully occupied during the day, but who wish to have the opportunity of mental improvement during their few leisure hours. The needs of this class of students were recognised by the late Dr. George Birkbeck, from whom this and kindred institutions take their name, and a short sketch of the life of that noble-minded and philanthropic man naturally belongs to our sketch.

George Birkbeck belonged to a family, not unknown in English History, which had its home at Settle, a market town in the West Riding of Yorkshire. He was born in the year

1776. In his boyhood he showed great aptitude for learning, and on leaving school, with the advice of his friends, he went to the University of Edinburgh, then in the zenith of its prosperity. Here he obtained the degree of Doctor of Medicine. He then left Edinburgh for Glasgow, where he commenced those labours which have rendered his name famous. He perceived that though the mechanics were well acquainted with their tools and instruments, yet they needed that some one should give them higher technical teaching. He therefore resolved to deliver lectures in the evenings for their instruction.

Like some other movements which in the long run are destined to be successful, that which Dr. G. Birkbeck had thus started was much ridiculed. But the Doctor persevered, and the result was the foundation of a Mechanics' Institute in Glasgow. The mechanics appreciated his generous efforts, and, in recognition, presented him with a handsome silver snuff-box on his leaving Scotland. It was in London that he now commenced practice as a physician, and, though he had no sympathy with those whose mere aim in life was to amass money, his professional income became considerable. He soon devoted himself, as he had done in Glasgow, to the spread of popular education, and he proposed the establishment of a Mechanics' Institute in London. Again he was met on all sides by opposition. Some of the newspapers took a wrong view of the thing; others pronounced his scheme to be a failure. But amidst all these difficulties the Doctor fought his way, and his labours were ultimately crowned with success. The Mechanics' Institute became a settled institution. There he delivered lectures on Science in such a clear and simple manner as to secure the interest of his audience. This Institute was, in fact, the first Birkbeck Institution. His admirable lectures drew crowds to hear him, and a larger building therefore became necessary. But in the height of his popularity, at the time when the people had begun to look upon him as their sincere friend, he was carried away. This sincere friend of the working classes died in the year 1841. His idea was further carried out by his friends. Increased accommodation became necessary, and funds were collected for the purpose of providing it. At last the present building was erected, the foundation-stone of which was laid by the late Duke of Albany, who was Patron of the Institution.

The Institution in Chancery Lane was the first of the kind established in London, by Dr. Birkbeck, and it has called into existence over 2,000 similar institutions in different parts of Great Britain and the Colonies. Since its foundation, in 1823, nearly 80,000 persons have availed themselves of its advantages; many of them have distinguished themselves in Art, Science,

and Literature. A list of the classes which are carried on on all weekday evenings shows a most comprehensive syllabus. Mathematics in various branches, Science and Technology (including Agriculture, Botany, Chemistry, Electrical Engineering, &c., Mechanics, Machine and Building Construction, Vegetable and Animal Morphology, Photography, Steam, and many other subjects), Mental and Moral Science, Music, Drawing (Architecture, &c.), English, and a variety of Foreign Languages are systematically taught. Preparation also is given for the Civil Service and the London University Examinations. There are also a few morning and afternoon classes. Lectures are delivered on every Wednesday evening in the large Lecture Hall, which seats 1,200 persons. The Library contains 10,000 volumes, and the Reading Room and Magazine Room are well supplied. The Science and Art Department and the Society of Arts hold Examinations in connection with the Institution, and offer Scholarships and Exhibitions; and besides, many other Honours and Prizes are offered for competition. For all these advantages, the fees are from five shillings to ten shillings a class per term to non-members; but to members (who are charged eighteen shillings per annum for gentlemen, and twelve shillings for ladies, with free admission to reading room, library, lectures, &c.) a reduction is made of about three shillings for each class. Many ladies have obtained the highest Certificates in the Examinations. The classes, which are directed by men who have distinguished themselves in their various subjects, are very largely attended; for the Institution supplies a desired want: that of providing a liberal education for those who, on account of their scanty leisure and limited income, would otherwise be deprived of the advantages of intellectual and technical training.

I desire to add that I have had an opportunity of seeing the working of the Birkbeck Institution. The regularity in attendance is truly astonishing, and most of the students are present before the hour for beginning the class, so eager are they in the pursuit of knowledge. Dr. Birkbeck may be said in one sense to be still living, because he has rendered his memory perpetual by the founding of an institution which is the source of such great good to thousands.

In conclusion, I may refer to the fact that, by the latest news from Bombay, it appears that it is proposed to establish a Technical School in that city, in honour of the retiring Viceroy, Lord Ripon. I would suggest that in connection with that School an Institution like the Birkbeck should be founded, which I am sure would prove very valuable to my countrymen.

B. S. M.

THE MEDICAL STUDENTS' COURSE IN THE UNIVERSITY OF ABERDEEN.

In attempting to act as a guide to the young medical student who may fix upon Aberdeen as his field for professional labours, I shall not linger to examine into the 'wherefore' of his predilection for this distant *Alma Mater*, nor enter into the question whether it be the fame of its teachers, the soundness of its training, the distinguished position its alumni occupy in the public competitions and in the profession, or the moderate demand made upon one's purse that acts as the magnet. I will suppose that some wind, good or ill, has wafted him hither.

The first question to be answered is, When should the student join the University? The University Calendar recommends that he should matriculate* during the Summer Session. It is not difficult to assign a reason for this recommendation. The courses of Botany and Natural History are delivered then, and the student is expected to take them out, and thus leave the ensuing summer free for practical Anatomy and Chemistry. But what chiefly determines the 'Colonial's' preference for coming over here during the summer is his desire to make his first acquaintance with a cold climate like this during the warm summer months. If these considerations weigh not with him, I see no advantage in matriculating then. However, if he has to pass the whole of his Preliminary Examination in Aberdeen, I think it advisable that he should be here early in August, so as to get settled down, and devote the autumn to the Preliminary subjects. These are divisible into optional and compulsory. The compulsory subjects for the M.B. degree are:—1. English—Composition, Grammar, and writing to dictation. 2. Latin—Cæsar's *De Bello Gallico*, Book I.; and Virgil's *Æneid*, Book III.; with grammatical questions. 3. Arithmetic—the common rules, Vulgar and Decimal Fractions, and Proportion. 4. Elements of Mathematics—the first three books of Euclid; Algebra, as far as and inclusive of simple equations. 5. Elements of Mechanics—Blaikie's *Elements of Dynamics*.

The candidate has also to undergo a further Examination on any *two* of the following before admission to the first Professional Examination:—1. Greek—Xenophon, *Anabasis*, Book II.,

* The matriculation fee for summer and winter is £1; for summer only, 10s. This fee is charged when the student takes out the various lecture tickets each session. We may add that the actual test of being a University undergraduate is the record of his having paid the matriculation fee and inserted his name in the roll of matriculated students.

with grammatical questions. 2. French—Voltaire's *Histoire de Pierre le Grand*. 3. German—Schiller's *Wilhelm Tell*. 4. Higher Mathematics—Euclid, Books 1 to 6 inclusive; Plane Trigonometry, Solution of Triangles, Quadratic Equations, Binomial theorem, Logarithms. 5. Natural Philosophy—Balfour Stewart's *Elementary Physics* recommended. 6. Natural History—General classification of the Animal Kingdom; Characters and subdivisions of the Vertebrata (Nicholson's advanced *Text-Book of Zoology*). 7. Logic—Jevons's *Elementary Lessons in Logic*. 8. Moral Philosophy—Reid's *Active Powers*.

For the degree of Doctor of Medicine the candidate has to pass a satisfactory examination in *Greek*, and in *Logic* or *Moral Philosophy*, and in *one* at least of the following subjects, viz., *French, German, Higher Mathematics, Natural Philosophy, and Natural History*.

Let me offer a word of advice as to what optional subjects he (the student) should choose for his Preliminary Examination. There is an advantage in making Greek and Logic, or Moral Philosophy, your two optionals. By securing a pass in them you will be killing two birds with one stone—qualifying yourself both for your M.B. and M.D. degrees. But yet another optional has to be passed, so as to entitle you to the latter degree. Compliance with this rule is, however, evaded by offering your pass at the First Professional, which includes Natural History, as an equivalent.

Let us suppose that the young medical student has been successful in his first endeavours, and has passed his Preliminary Examination. Such a result bodes well. It evidences an aptitude for close study, presages success hereafter, and conduces to a sense of freedom. "I feel thankful I have no bug-bear of a 'prelim.' to interfere with my strictly professional studies!" is not an unfrequent exclamation. Above all, this success *in limine* is the talisman, the 'open sesame,' which admits him into the vestibule of academical honours. There is no stimulus to exertion like the stimulus of success at the very commencement. There is, alas! a notion that the Preliminary Examination may be passed gradually, and that failure in it is after all no great mishap. Such an idea cannot be too strongly deprecated. Sufficient for the day is the evil thereof; for you will need all your time, in Session and out of it, for professional work, which, remember, is ever accumulating, and in a short while will assume such Augean proportions as to require a very Hercules to reduce them. Consider that your 'prelim.' is the first instalment towards obtaining a diploma, and therefore neglect it not.

In your first Winter Session the lectures you ought to attend

are Anatomy (Theoretical, fee £3 3s. ; and Practical, fee £2 2s.)* and Theoretical Chemistry.

The systematic lectures in Anatomy are delivered by the Professor at eleven in the forenoon, while the Osteology class for the beginner is convoked at one p.m. by the Senior Demonstrator. In his course the Professor demonstrates, *i.e.*, displays to the student the various structures that go to build up a limb or part, naming, classifying, and giving the structure and relations of each. This method is followed till the whole body has been under systematic review. The beginner generally experiences a difficulty in assimilating the facts presented in this course. He tries to master every minute detail mentioned, forgetting that the course is intended for the advanced student as well, or he loses all interest in the lectures, from some portions of them being too deep as yet for his comprehension. Remember never to go away from a lecture without gaining some knowledge ; make frequent use of your note-books, and supplement the lectures by reading the subject in the text-books† prescribed. That you are supposed to carry away the leading facts is evidenced by their being made the subject of an oral Examination at the nine o'clock morning demonstrations. These are held twice a week for the "first year's" man, twice for the "second," and once for the "third year's" man. The beginner is expected to know his Osteology, in which he is 'ground' by the Senior Demonstrator, as well as the main points of the systematic lectures. The duty of the Demonstrator is to describe the bones briefly, and he examines a few of the students at a time on the work set on the last occasion of their meeting. The whole class is gone over thus in rotation. Marks are assigned by him, by the Professor in his morning demonstrations, by the second Demonstrator for neatness and accuracy in dissections, and to answers given to papers set during the Session ; the aggregate of all these determining the position of the student in the honours list, which is thus a measure of the work accomplished during the Session. These remarks apply to the various classes of the medical curriculum, though in some of them no *viva voce* examination is required.

Let us now fill up the working hours of a "freshman's" winter. The college day commences at nine and ends at five in the evening. From nine to ten he is at the morning demonstrations, or in the dissecting-room, reading up his Osteology from the

* The fee for a course of Lectures is generally Three Guineas, a second attendance being charged only Two, while a third is usually Free, with the exception of some of the practical classes. When not otherwise indicated, the reader is to assume that the usual scale of fees is applicable.

† For systematic Anatomy Quain's or Bray's is the book recommended, while as a practical guide trust to Ellis or Holden. Good books on Osteology are Ward and Holden.

specimens laid out for his study; or towards the latter part of the Session, when he is more advanced, he will be prosecuting his dissections. The next hour is also devoted to one or other object just mentioned. At eleven he files in with the rest for the systematic lecture. This over, he follows the students to the Infirmary for an hour. The beginner cannot as yet profit much by the teaching given there; but as such a high authority as Syme laid it down as a dictum that the two places where one learnt the profession were the dissecting-room and the wards of an Hospital, it is as well for the novice to train himself early to 'walk' the Hospital, as it is termed. To qualify for a licence, and to make his attendance 'count,' he must be provided with an Hospital ticket. This may be a perpetual one (for £6), or may be made perpetual by taking out a year's ticket (£3 10s.), and at its end renewing it (£3). Two years' practice at a *recognised* Hospital is compulsory. Attendance is recorded in a book kept on the premises, in which the student enters his name at the commencement of each month. At this stage he had better confine his visits to the surgical side of the Hospital, seeing the operations, and attending to the 'Clinic' given at the bedside. At one o'clock, for an hour, the Osteology class meets. The next hour is devoted to lunch or dinner, as inclination may point. The Chemistry lecture is delivered from three till four. With the end of this lecture the "freshman's" college day may be supposed to close.

The course of Chemistry embraces both the Organic and the Inorganic, the Professor supplementing his remarks with experiments when practicable.*

The summer following his first winter is to the student an anxious one. At the end of it he has to face, for the first time, the ordeal of a Professional Examination. By a happy arrangement the first Professional has been sub-divided; Botany, together with Natural History, constituting the first part. If he has not already had these classes out, attendance must now be put in. The lectures in Botany are delivered at eight in the morning. There is a practical class as well, which is free to members of the Theoretical. A pleasant feature of the teaching of Botany is the excursions into the neighbouring districts in quest of the flora which are from time to time organised by the Professor, who enjoys the 'outing' as much as his students. This combination of the *dulce et utile* is, we think, conducive towards the happiest of results.†

* The text-books recommended are: Wilson's *Inorganic Chemistry*, Fowne's *Manual*, and Miller's *Elements of Chemistry*.

† CLASS BOOKS.—Henfrey's *Elementary Course of Botany*, 3rd Edition; or Bentley's *Manual of Botany*, 4th Edition; Hooker's *Student's Flora*; or Babington's *Manual of British Botany*. Sack's *Text-book of Botany* is recommended to the Senior Student.

The Anatomical Demonstrations claim the next hour (fee, £2 2s.). This course, we may remark, is not compulsory, the practical work done during the past six months covering the requirements of the curriculum; but Anatomy is a wide subject, and it would be courting failure to attempt to master all its details within the short compass of a single Session. Lectures are given on Osteology, Human and Comparative; on Surgical Anatomy, as well as Histology or Microscopic Anatomy.*

It may so happen that the next hour may be the one assigned for practical Chemistry.† This class meets in sections, a different hours, in the laboratory, where the student is taught to manipulate, and trained to test for the ingredients in a complex mixture. On certain days the class as a whole meets in the lecture-room, where the Professor proceeds to point out the errors in manipulation and testing. The hours following the Chemistry hour may be divided between dissections and Hospital work; but at two o'clock he attends the Natural History lectures.‡ Notice is given of a practical class in this subject (fee, £2 2s.), but the course is not compulsory.

As this and Botany are to form the subjects for his first Professional Examination, they must claim the student's close attention and study. Nothing is more conducive to success than the fact that he has already gained a high position in the class list in those very subjects in which he appears for examination. The Professor being also the examiner, it stands to reason that he will be favourably disposed towards any student who has gained an honorary Certificate of merit in the class Examinations. What is the Professional Examination like? is a question that can be asked only by one who has never been to these latter. There is no better training for the Professional than these, and we would therefore urge most emphatically upon the student the necessity of familiarising himself by frequenting them. As in class Examinations, papers are set; but at the *viva voce* or oral, besides the Professor, an assessor Examiner is appointed, who is there to see that the candidate gets fair-play; a further function of his being to test his knowledge.

Our experience is that much depends on the result of the paper given in. It is not an unusual occurrence for a candidate to be rejected, and his orals denied, solely on the merits of the papers. A good paper generally presupposes a lenient oral,

* TEXT BOOKS ON HISTOLOGY.—Quain's *Elements of Anatomy*; Klein's *Elements of Histology*.

† Professor Brazier's Analytical Tables are followed in analysis.

‡ TEXT BOOK.—Professor Nicholson's *Manual of Zoology*, 6th Edition. For advanced students, Gegenbauer's *Comparative Anatomy*, and Owen's *Anatomy and Physiology of Vertebrates*.

unless the candidate be an aspirant for honours. These orals are made as practical as possible, it being the aim to test his familiarity with the objects he has read about by confronting him with actual specimens.

A fee of five guineas is charged before he is allowed in, in respect of each of the first two Professional Examinations, and one of ten guineas in respect of the third Professional. A schedule, certifying to the classes he has attended, has also to be given some days previous to examination.

In his second winter he attends Anatomy, as before, paying the same fees, without any reduction, and in addition Surgery* at 10 a.m., or Institutes of Medicine (Physiology)† at two. A practical class in Surgery is held at 5 p.m., which is free to students of Surgery.

At the end of this term he goes up for the second part of his first Professional, which division comprises Anatomy and Chemistry (Theoretical and Practical). The student who has successfully passed these two parts has reason to congratulate himself that he has got rid of those extra-professional subjects, which have but an indirect bearing upon his profession. I more especially refer to Botany and Natural History.

In the summer succeeding the second winter the classes attended are: Operative Surgery (optional), 10 a.m., fee, £2 2s.; Practical Pharmacy,‡ £2 2s. (compulsory); Practical Physiology§ at 3 o'clock, fee, £3 3s. (optional).

The third winter classes are Surgery, of which the students generally take out two courses, one only being compulsory. If he has not already attended Physiology, or as a second course, he may take it out. This Session being his last in Anatomy, he might as well take out the Practical ticket, which will admit him to the dissecting-room. The lectures are free. The Anatomical knowledge required is of the nature of Surgical Anatomy, as we would suppose, although the term "Regional Anatomy," in itself vague and indefinite, is the official one employed. The text-book recommended is Treves' *Surgical Anatomy*; but we think the student will find Carrington's *Manual of Dissections*, or Ellis' *Demonstrations* more to the purpose. Yet another course of lectures has to be attended this winter, and that is *Materia Medica* at 4 p.m. ||

* TEXT BOOK.—Byrant's *Surgery*.

† TEXT BOOK.—Kirke's, Foster's, Hermann's or Landois' *Text book of Physiology*.

‡ TEXT BOOK.—Pareira's *Selecta e Prescriptis*.

§ Stirling's *Practical Histology and Outlines of Physiological Chemistry*.

|| TEXT BOOK.—Garrod's or Scoresby-Jackson's *Materia Medica*, and Professor Harvey's *Syllabus*.

The Examination at the end of this winter includes Regional Anatomy, Institutes of Medicine, Materia Medica (Theoretical and Practical), and Surgery.

The only class compulsory during the 3rd summer is Medical Jurisprudence* and Medical Logic at 9 a.m. Usually there is a course of Toxicology,† which hitherto has been open to the students of the regular class. I should not omit to mention that Practical Pathology, an optional class, meets at 8 a.m. Fee, three guineas.

The final winter classes comprise Practice of Medicine‡ at 11 a.m.; Pathological Anatomy § at 3 p.m.; Midwifery|| and Diseases of Women¶ and Children** at 4 p.m.; Clinical Medicine on Mondays and Thursdays at 1 p.m., held in the Operating Theatre of the Infirmary; and Clinical Surgery on Tuesdays and Fridays at the same hour and place.

Certificates of Attendance at Dispensary, Lying-in, and Vaccine Institutions are also required. You attend there at 10 a.m.; and the fee of two guineas entitles you to the instruction given at the several Institutions.

The final Examination comprises Practice of Medicine, Clinical Medicine, Clinical Surgery, Midwifery with Diseases of Women and Children, Pathology and Medical Jurisprudence with Toxicology. The 'clinics,' as their names imply, are held at the bedside of the patients, in the Infirmary; both the Assessor and the Professor conducting the Examinations.

After the final Examination the successful undergraduates are advanced to the position of graduates, by a ceremony known among students as the 'capping.' This crowning act to the academical career takes place in the Graduation Hall, in the presence of the Professors of the various faculties and the assembled townsfolk. The Principal of the University, after prayers, proceeds to invest the candidates with cap and hood. The academic costume for the Bachelor of Medicine degree consists of a black robe with a silk hood of same colour, lined with crimson silk; while that for the Doctor of Medicine is purple cloth, lined with crimson silk. This latter degree is not

* TEXT BOOKS.—Guy and Ferrier's *Forensic Medicine*; or Ogston's *Lectures on Medical Jurisprudence*, with Taylor *On Poisons*; for consultation, Taylor's *Principles and Practice of Medical Jurisprudence*.

† Parke's *Practical Hygiene*; Wilson's *Handbook of Hygiene*; Bain's *Induction*.

‡ Roberts', Flint's, or Bristowe's *Practice of Medicine*.

§ Ziegler's *Pathological Anatomy*; Coats' or Green's *Pathology*.

|| Playfair's or Lusch's *Midwifery*. ¶ Galabin's *Diseases of Women*.

** West's *Diseases of Children*.

conferred till two years after graduation. No extra Examination is needed; but a thesis, approved of by the Senatus, is required to be lodged with a fee, which, with the dues for stamp duty, amounts to about fifteen guineas.

Before I conclude, let me proceed to summarise certain facts, which would be none the worse for the repetition, and I trust the summary will contribute towards enhancing the value of this bare outline, for an outline only it can be; but further information, perhaps not so systematically presented, may be gleaned from that heterogeneous mass of ill-digested information, yecept the *University Calendar*, and published by A. King and Co.

Medical Preliminary Examination, third week in October and last week in April (compulsory subjects).

Summer Session begins last week in April or generally first week in May. Winter Session begins in the third or last week in October.

Medical Graduation, first week in August or third in April. First part of First Professional Examination may be passed at the end of a Winter and Summer Sessions, and comprises *Botany* and *Natural History*.

The Second Division may be taken at the end of the second winter, and includes *Anatomy* and *Chemistry*.

Second Professional, at the end of third winter. Subjects examined in are *Physiology*, *Regional Anatomy*, *Materia Medica*, and *Surgery*.

The final subjects at the end of fourth winter are *Jurisprudence*, *Pathology*, *Practice of Medicine*, *Midwifery* and the two 'Clinics.'

The cost of living in Aberdeen is comparatively moderate. £200 per annum will cover all expenses, without any stringent economy. Under many circumstances £150 will suffice. Board in comfortable style, in private families, may be had from £52 to £80 inclusive; and there are lodgings to suit every variety of purse or of habits. The city is handsome and healthy, with many amenities, which are constantly on the increase, and it is situated within easy distance of some of the most salubrious and picturesque districts of Scotland.

PHILIP S. BRITO, M.B. (Honors),
Late Demonstrator of Anatomy,
Aberdeen University.

Aberdeen, November, 1884.

INDIAN INTELLIGENCE.

The following Resolution of the Government of India in the Revenue and Agricultural Department on the subject of the Indian and Colonial Exhibition, to be held in London in 1886, has been published: "The Government of India has accepted, through Her Majesty's Secretary of State, the invitation of His Royal Highness the Prince of Wales to take part in an Exhibition, to be held in London under a Royal Commission in 1886, the purpose of which, in the words of His Royal Highness, is to demonstrate on the fullest scale to the inhabitants of the British Islands the unbounded industrial resources at their command within the limits of Her Majesty's Colonial and Indian dominion. The co-operation of Local Governments and Administrations in this project has already been invited, and the Government is now desirous that the general public throughout India should be made acquainted with the opportunity which will be afforded of displaying in a complete and comprehensive manner the produce, arts, manufactures of the Empire. The Exhibition will be opened at South Kensington early in May, 1886, and all Indian exhibits should arrive in England before the 1st of January in that year."

A meeting was held at Poona on October 24th for the formation of a Deccan Education Society, which will aim at promoting good middle-class boys' schools through the Bombay Presidency. Sir W. Wedderburn, Bart., presided on this occasion.

The late Dr. Bholanath Bose, the first native of India who took the degree of Doctor of Medicine at the University of London, by his last will made over to the Principal of the Medical College, Calcutta, four scientific instruments; namely, an air-pump, galvanic batteries, a polariscope, and a spectro-scope, bequeathed by him for the use and benefit of that institution; also a Government promissory-note of Rs. 1000, from the interest of which to found a prize or scholarship, as the Principal may deem fit. Two gold and two silver medals which the doctor received at the London University College, and a silver medal with clasps awarded to the doctor by Government for field services at the battle of Chillianwalla, are to be deposited

in the Medical College Museum, or in any other suitable place which the College authorities may decide upon.

Miss Chandra Mukhi Bose, M.A., Second Mistress, Bethune Girls' School, has been appointed to officiate as Lecturer to the College Classes in that institution.

THE LATE MR. FAWCETT AND INDIANS IN ENGLAND.

The death of the Right Honourable Mr. Fawcett evoked, as was to be expected, from the Indian community in London a general and heartfelt expression of grief. Two lovely wreaths—one inscribed “In Memoriam,” and the other “India”—were to be seen among the tributes of flowers which covered the grave; the former chiefly from Bengalee gentlemen, and the latter forwarded by Mr. Gazdar and other Bombayites, which was, at their request, kindly taken in charge by Mrs. Garrett-Anderson. On Saturday, 15th November, there was a general meeting of Indian gentlemen specially called at Exeter Hall to give expression to the sense of loss which they felt that their country and countrymen had suffered by the untimely death of Mr. Fawcett. It was very well attended, nearly all parts of India being represented. Mr. M. A. Rogay, Mr. L. M. Ghose, Mr. J. J. Gazdar, Mr. M. M. Bhownaggee and other gentlemen spoke to resolutions in very feeling terms. It seemed to be the unanimous opinion of all assembled that, great as was the loss of the British public, that of India was greater and irreparable, as throughout his parliamentary career the deceased statesman had been a protector of the interests of India to an extent which had, by popular consent, fitly earned him the title of “Member for India.” The meeting resolved to convey its message of condolence and sympathy to the bereaved widow, as well as to the distressed parents of Mr. Fawcett, in a suitable form, and a sufficient sum of money was subscribed on the spot to defray the expenses. It was the general feeling that a permanent memorial in his honour ought to be raised in India; and with the view of uniting in such a movement, when set on foot in that country, the meeting agreed to take no separate action in that direction here.—(*Communicated.*)

PERSONAL INTELLIGENCE.

At the General Examination of students of the Inns of Court, held at the end of October, Mr. Mohammed Abdool Majid (Middle Temple), Mr. Jijibhai Edalji Modi (Lincoln's Inn), Mr. Moungh Bah Ohn (Middle Temple), and Mr. Syed Mohamed Habib Ullah (Middle Temple), received Certificates of having satisfactorily passed a Public Examination.

The following passed in the Roman Law Examination :—Kumar Shri Harbhamji (Lincoln's Inn), Mr. Mohammed Abdul Jalil (Middle Temple), Mr. Byramji Colabavala Rustamji (Lincoln's Inn), and Mr. Namaswayam Tyagaraja (Lincoln's Inn).

The following gentlemen were called to the Bar on Nov. 18th :—Pandit Shyāmaji Krishnavarma, B.A. Oxford (Inner Temple), Syed Mohamed Habib Ullah, Balliol College, Oxford (Middle Temple).

Mr. Tamiz Uddin Ahmed has passed the Examination for the M.B., C.M. degree of the University of Glasgow.

Mr. Prafulla Chunder Roy has passed the First B.Sc. Examination in the Department of Natural and Experimental Sciences in the University of Edinburgh.

Mr. D. M. Sangle has passed the First Professional Examination for the degree of M.B., C.M. of the University of Edinburgh.

Mr. Dominick A. D'Monte, B.A. (Bombay), L.R.C.P. (Lond.), has passed the F.R.C.S. (Edinburgh) Examination.

Mr. J. B. Sathupathy has passed in the Additional Subjects of the Previous Examination of Candidates for Honours in the University of Cambridge. He has lately been elected a Non-Resident Member of the Royal Asiatic Society.

Dr. N. B. Gandevia has been appointed a Clinical Assistant at the Royal London Ophthalmic Hospital, Moorfields.

Dr. D. N. Rây has been made a Corresponding Member of the New York Society for Medico-Scientific Investigations.

Rajmānya Rājashri Vasudev Madhav Samarth, B.A. (Bombay), has joined Lincoln's Inn.

Mr. Roshun Lal has entered at the Middle Temple.

Mr. Kanta Pershad has joined the London Hospital.

Mr. P. N. Chetti has joined the Inner Temple.

The following have entered at the University of Cambridge :—Prince Albert Victor Jay Dhuleep Singh (Trinity College), Mr. Bomanjee Ardeseer Wadia (Caius), Mr. Lokendranath Palit (Emmanuel), Mr. Pulicat Narayansami Chetti (Downing), and Mr. Rustomjee Nowrozjee Motabhoy (Cavendish).

At St. John's College, Cambridge, a M'Mahon law studentship of the annual value of £150 and tenable for four years has been awarded to James Peiris, B.A., LL.B., scholar of the College. Mr. Peiris graduated in 1882. He obtained a first-class in the Law Tripos in December, 1881, and also a first-class in the Moral Sciences Tripos in June, 1883. The studentships are intended for members of St. John's College who have graduated and *bonâ-fide* intend to prepare themselves for practice in the profession of the law, either as barristers or solicitors. Mr. Peiris was called to the Bar in 1882, and is now practising at Colombo.

Arrivals.—Mr. Kanta Pershad, from Lahore; Mr. S. N. Kaka, from Bombay; Mr. Jotish Chandra Mitra and Mr. Lolit — Bose, from Calcutta; Dr. D. N. Rây, on his return from the United States. (*We give the following names more fully than in the first announcement of arrival:—*Rajmānya Rājashri Vasudev Madhav Samarth, B.A., Secretary to H.H. the Mahārāja Gaikwar of Baroda; Shrimant, Sampatrao Gaikwād, brother to H.H. the Mahārāja Gaikwar; Shrimant, Ganpatrao Gaikwād, cousin to H.H. the Mahārāja Gaikwar; and Shrimant, Khasherao Jādhav. Also Kumar Shiam Sinha, of Tajpore.)

Departures.—Mr. and Mrs. Ameer Ali, for Calcutta; Mr. M. P. Kharegat, of the Indian Civil Service, for Bombay; Syed M. S. Hossein, M.R.A.C., for Oude.

We acknowledge with thanks the latest Report of the Madras Branch of the National Indian Association, with an account of the Annual Meeting, held August 23rd, 1884.

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